# EDUCATION AND SOCIAL TRENDS

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# *EDUCATION AND SOCIAL TRENDS*

BY

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MORRIS HARVEY COLLEGE
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# *Preface*

RECENT changes in our ways of living together, in attitudes and ideals as well as customs and institutions, point unmistakably to certain present trends of social forces that are creating new and pressing problems for education. The schools are faced with making well-informed decisions. What are to be our answers? Upon what bases shall we fairly and intelligently choose between conflicting ideas?

First of all some of us must attempt to select and analyze those social trends which have great (and direct) significance for education today. It is not practical for all or even many teachers who feel the stresses of rapid social change to make an adequate study of the fields of economics, sociology, and politics with which they are now rightly concerned in their work of instruction and of curriculum revision. So guides should be set up to suggest fruitful direction for the reading and thought of those who are most concerned with the influences of education in shaping American life, whether they be school administrators, classroom teachers, or interested laymen.

It is in the effort to provide this needed orientation for thoughtful study of the educational implications of fundamental present social trends that this book has been prepared. It takes the reader to a few basic sources in which may be seen a picture of changes, of trends, in our mode of life to which the

curriculums of our schools must now or later be adjusted; and it points out some of the ways in which these aspects of social evolution impinge upon the work of the schools. Also there are set forth for further investigation and discussion some of the questions and problems to which we as educators and as citizens of a democracy should address ourselves in the effort to arrive unselfishly at solutions which are best when measured in terms of the general welfare of all the people.

It is hoped that this volume may serve to give direction to reading and discussion groups in both school and community. Can a few hours a month be better spent than in a consideration of social principles that underlie changes which, from within and without, are being urged upon our schools? When radical innovations are undertaken, the rank and file of teachers and the parents of the pupils have the responsibility as well as the right to understand the bases for them.

There is no time to be lost. As Alexis Carrel has pointed out, "The day has come to begin the work of our renovation. . . . We must arise and move on. . . . We must liberate ourselves from blind technology and grasp the complexity and wealth of our nature."

RALEIGH SCHORLING
HOWARD Y. MCCLUSKY

ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN

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## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors wish to express their indebtedness to many writers on social problems and to the publishers of the works of those from whom quotations have been made. Specific acknowledgment for permission to use material is made by footnote at the appropriate points in the book. Expressions of appreciation should also be made to Dean James B. Edmonson of the University of Michigan, who designed a field course in education for which the idea and general plan of this volume originally constituted the introductory unit; to Mr. Leonard O. Andrews, who made many helpful suggestions on the manuscript; and to Professor Robert C. Angell, who criticized the manuscript and proof from the viewpoint of a sociologist.

# *Chapter One*

## Introduction

WE hear a great deal about education for a changing world. The world is changing. There is, however, nothing new about that; it has always been changing. We read that it is the business of the school to educate the children to adjust to a changing world. Any child, in any community, in any period of history has had to make a tremendous number of adjustments.

Our pioneer forefathers who settled the Atlantic seaboard, not to mention the Far West, faced difficulties that we today would consider almost insurmountable. Providing the merest essentials — food, clothing, and shelter — was difficult enough, and the problems of health and safety were tremendous. One needs only to wander through the churchyard of an old New England village and read on the tombstones the legends that tell how early in life the first wife of the pioneer was stricken down, or to note how many of her tiny children fell victims in rapid succession to the unconquered diseases of that day. Even the problem of recreation is not one that has suddenly been thrust upon us. Any boy who has spent long winter nights in a farm home, snowbound from the rest of the world, with no book that has not been read at least three times, with no

newspaper except the four-page folder delivered by the huckster a week ago Wednesday, and with the jack of diamonds and the three of spades missing from the only available pack of cards — any boy with such experience realizes that the pioneer home also had its problem of leisure.

While the fundamental problem of a teacher in every age has been to guide the pupil into a desirable adjustment to a rapidly changing world, the task is certainly much more difficult today because of the accelerated rate of change. It is not change, but the rate of change, that threatens us. If an invention or a discovery is announced today, by tomorrow most of the persons who attend the movies or listen to the radio know about it. In a few days we are able to begin mass production, and within a week the product can be delivered, by airplane if necessary, and used in every part of the country. At the same time the use of the new machine or article may throw many things out of gear and create a new situation to which it takes us months and years to adjust.

In the following pages are discussed certain social and economic trends which are swiftly shaping the future and which have important educational implications. Among the more important of these trends are:

1. The widening gap between our wants and our ability to satisfy them.

2. The concentration of economic control without a corresponding acceptance of social responsibility.

3. The weakening of the controls for the integration of personality exercised by religion and the home.

4. The increasing complexity and strain of modern life to which the individual must adjust.

5. The shifting character of the population.

6. The struggle for international coöperation.

7. The clash of world political ideals, with its implied threat to American democracy.

8. The influence of machines and scientific techniques on the number and types of occupations.

9. The widening gap between the expert and the masses.

10. The growing conviction of the masses regarding the desirability of education.

11. The discovery of the public school by numerous pressure groups as an instrument for the control of the ideas of children.

These are some of the forces that are shaping the new world and which the school dares not ignore. "Schools," as Glenn Frank points out, "function at the center of a swirl of forces that are forever churning and changing the nature and mood of the age. They could not, if they would, stay aloof from the processes of conflict and change that surge through the social order they seek to serve." [1]

In this book there is an effort to review briefly these social and economic trends and to point out

[1] Glenn Frank, *America's Hour of Decision.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1934.

some of their more important educational implications. There is an attempt to guide the busy teacher and administrator to a few references which may help him to see the situation more clearly. In each section there is a brief list of questions which it is hoped the faculties of schools or community groups may discuss with interest and profit.

### MINIMUM READING

*Modern Social and Educational Trends. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association,* Vol. XII, No. 5 (November, 1934).

"The Schools in the Story of Culture." Seven articles by Beard and Carr in the *Journal of the National Education Association,* November, 1934, to May, 1935.

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# *Chapter Two*

## The Widening Gap between Our Wants and Our Ability to Satisfy Them

SOMEONE has playfully suggested that we will have a revolution in America when the laborer cannot ride to his job in an automobile. A common error among critics of the American scene, who may, perhaps, have an excessive enthusiasm for Fascism, Communism, or some "share the wealth" scheme, is that they are prone to contrast the practical achievements of the American system with the theoretical, paper claims of social formulas which have not, as yet, been subjected to severe experimental trial. It is fair to contrast the practices of the one with the practices of the other, and the theory of the one with the theory of the other. On this basis it must be conceded that the American social and economic order, with all its faults, has achieved amazing results; for during the last century the American people have traveled a long way on the road to plenty. Our American standard of living is exceptionally high. This is vividly expressed by Ogburn's [1] interesting contrast of the laborer's lot with that of royalty in an earlier period.

1 William F. Ogburn, *You and Machines* (1935). Reprinted by special permission of the University of Chicago Press.

The machine has given the common laborer more comforts than Queen Marie had at Versailles. Many workmen today live in steam-heated houses with bathtubs, and hot and cold running water, and indoor toilets. More than a few of them have automobiles. In Queen Marie Antoinette's apartments in the Palace of Versailles in France, the stove used to heat the big rooms was very inferior to our modern furnace. The little bathtub she used looks crude when compared with the big white and colored porcelain bathtubs of today. Her bowl and pitcher were not as convenient as the modern wash basin with its drainpipe and running water. Very probably the girl behind the counter at Woolworth's has more silk stockings than had this queen, 150 years ago. She never had a radio, nor a telephone. She never went to a moving-picture show. Her food was cooked over an open hearth in the cellar of the palace, not on an electric or a gas range. In her day washerwomen went down to the river, where they washed garments in the running water, beating them out on the rocks. Electric washing machines and wringers, electric irons and mangles have made women's work easier. The machine has given us many comforts and conveniences.

All this is another way of saying that our standard of living has been greatly raised by the machine. Workers' wages buy many more goods than they did 150 years ago.

One way of measuring the standard of living is to find out what per cent of wages has to go for food. The American workingman probably spends a little more than one third of all he makes for food for himself and his family. Two thirds he spends on rent, clothing, fuel, light, tobacco, drink, travel, transportation, insurance, entertainment, church, lodge dues, medicine, doctors, dentists, etc. Fifty years ago he spent nearly one half his wages on food, and hence had only one half for

other things. In China, where there are few machines, the poorest workman in a town often will have to spend 85 per cent of all he makes on food alone, leaving only 15 per cent for rent, fuel, light, clothing, and all the other items.

But we do not need to go back to the Middle Ages or to China to realize that our standard of living is extremely high. The amount of money spent annually at the drug store by the average family of the professional group would have provided most of the necessities for a whole family in pioneer days. The common laborer of many European countries cannot imagine the luxury whereby the American workingman operates his own car.

Let us not conclude, however, that all is well and that we are living in the best of worlds, for it appears that in our richest year (1929) most of our people did not have enough to eat. In that year twelve out of every hundred city families lived on what the Department of Agriculture calls an "emergency diet" consisting of oleomargarine, flour, potatoes, canned milk, canned vegetables, and a little pork. More than half our people, 62 per cent, in that boom year lived on what is defined as a "subsistence diet," which does not contain the fresh fruit, fresh vegetables, and milk that authorities say children and adults need in order to be healthy. All together, about three fourths of our city people did not have enough food. From the pages of a recent book entitled *Rich Man,*

*Poor Man*,[1] which tells the story in graphic and popular form, we select the following facts:

1. One fourth of the people were living in slums or in shacks that should have been torn down. Over one third of the homes in towns and cities, and nearly 80 per cent of those in villages, had no sanitation or running water.

2. Only about 7 or perhaps 8 per cent of the farm homes had bathtubs, only about 15 per cent had running water, only about 12 per cent had electric lights, and about one in every three houses had a telephone.

3. About eight out of every ten persons did not see a dentist during the entire year, and it is impossible to believe that they did not need to go or did not want to go.

4. Far from an overproduction of food in 1929 we had a drastic scarcity when measured by what we needed to give everyone enough to eat, as the following table shows. The figures are in millions.

| | What We Produce | How Much More We Need |
|---|---|---|
| Dairy Cows | 24 | 16 |
| Beef and Veal | 20 | 10 |
| Pigs | 70 | 15 |
| Poultry | 440 | 160 |
| Sheep | 20 | 10 |

The table should be read: "In 1929 we had about 24 million dairy cows. We should have about 16

[1] R. A. Goslin and O. P. Goslin, *Rich Man, Poor Man.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1935.

million more to provide all the milk needed if each person drank as much milk as he is supposed to, to maintain health."

There is here no evidence to suggest that we were as a nation living beyond our means. The general picture for 1929 is presented in the following quotation from a basic study:

> Wages and salaries amounted in 1929 to 52,793 million dollars and were distributed among slightly over 35 million individuals. Probably some 2 to 4 million additional men were employed part-time.
>
> This income averages less than $1575 per full-time wage and salary earner per annum. $1475 was and is not enough to command the goods and services needed to provide a comfortable standard of life at 1929 prices, nor even at 1932 prices. When it is recalled that $1475 is not the income of unmarried individuals but must, except for the few working individuals who have no dependents, cover the living expenses of families of various sizes, the insufficiency of a family budget based on so inadequate a buying power becomes apparent. This is why some 42 per cent of our population were, even in the halcyon year of 1929, unable to enjoy goods and services sufficient to provide a decent or healthy standard of life.[1]

Our people did not have the necessities of life in 1929 because they did not have the money to pay for them. We have not learned how to finance the consumer. Whenever a new machine is installed which

[1] Harold Loeb and Associates, *The Chart of Plenty*. Copyright 1935. Published by The Viking Press, Inc., New York. Reprinted by special permission of the publishers.

throws a hundred men out of employment, the purchasing power of their families will be lower until they have new jobs. We have not been able to think of new jobs fast enough. In the end, perhaps, the machine may create more jobs than it displaces, but the transition period inflicts severe maladjustments. Moreover, merely creating jobs and paying laboring men with money borrowed from their own posterity may not, as we shall see later, be a basic solution to the fundamental problem.

The gap between what we want and what we can have is rapidly widening because we are not able to increase the purchasing power of the masses to keep pace with their wants, which, though already great, are constantly being stimulated by the movies, the radio, the school, and the press. Without falling into the error of blaming the World War for all our troubles, we may note how much better the world would be today if war could have been avoided, for one of the causes of the general restlessness that characterizes the world today is the destruction of vast stores of goods during the World War that had been produced through credits borrowed from posterity, leaving inadequate supplies with which to meet the ever-increasing real demands.

If to the preceding picture we add the fact that even during the prosperous years we had several million submerged unemployed, and the fact that at present with the natural forces of periodic recovery apparently well under way we find it extraordinarily

difficult to cut down the eleven million or so unemployed, we are driven to admit that Uncle Sam has been, and is still, very sick. He needs to sit down and analyze carefully the causes of this unhealthy condition of his economic system, and resolve to avoid trouble in the future.

Probably the most careful study of our economic problem, together with a proposal for a way out, is to be found in four volumes recently published by the Brookings Institution of Washington. For our purpose we turn to a summary of these investigations by Dr. Harold G. Moulton.[1] The inquiry centered around four questions: First, to what extent have we been utilizing our productive capacities? The chart on the next page shows to what extent we have failed. The more heavily shaded portion of the columns indicates what we have produced in a given year, while the lighter shading at the top shows the additional amount that we could have produced in that year. In general the plant as a whole has operated at about 80 per cent capacity. The report says, "Roughly speaking, it was found that the country could have produced 20 per cent more than it did in 1929 — or ninety-six instead of eighty-one billions of dollars' worth. And it was further found that this proportion of non-utilization had remained fairly constant over the thirty years preceding." The reader will need to keep this chart in mind as we proceed.

[1] Harold G. Moulton, "The Trouble with Capitalism Is the Capitalists," *Fortune*, Vol. XII (November, 1935), pages 77–81.

PRODUCTIVE CAPACITY AND ACTUAL PRODUCTION, 1922-1933

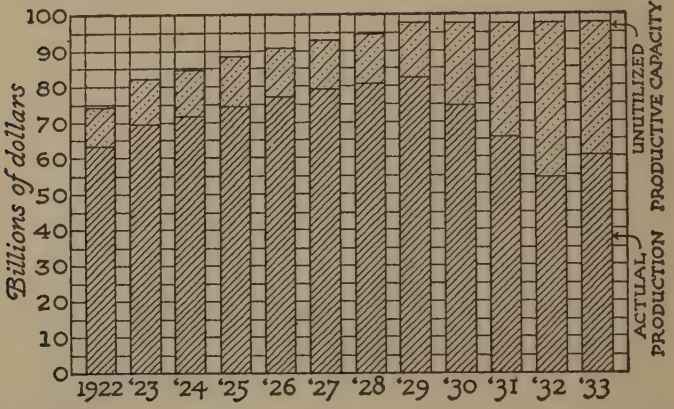


FIGURE 1. This chart illustrates the extent to which we have failed to utilize our full productive capacity. The more heavily shaded portions of the columns represent what we produced; the area with lighter shading, at the top of the columns, shows the additional amount that could have been turned out. Over most of this period our plant, as a whole, operated at about 80 per cent of practical capacity, but after 1929 the figure dropped far lower. Productive capacity also ceased to expand at its former rate, constituting one of the greatest costs of the recent depression. (*After Moulton.*)

This first inquiry suggests a very important question: Why is it that so large a part of our productive capacity is not used? The answer is to be found in the second inquiry, which dealt with our potential capacity to consume. The first guess might well be that we have perhaps an excess of plant and that we are physically unable to consume the excess amount that we could so easily produce. But we must reject this hypothesis, for in earlier pages we have noted

convincing evidence that the American people could use a vast amount of goods if they could only pay for the food, shelter, and clothing they need, not to mention the conveniences and luxuries. The accompanying chart, also quoted from Moulton, expresses this idea vividly. If we remember that most of the families are in the small income groups, and if we note what large sums are spent by the families in the

EXPENDITURES OF NON-FARM FAMILIES, 1929

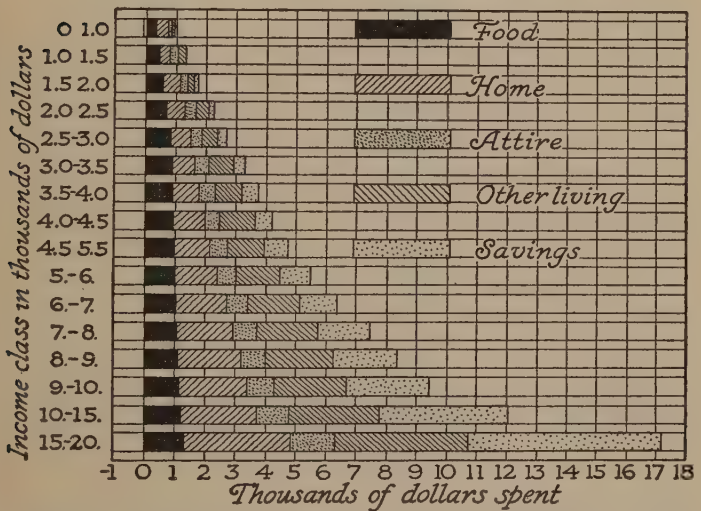


FIGURE 2. Most persons would spend a great deal more for consumption goods if they could. In this pictorial analysis of urban income groups, expenditures for "home" and "other living" mount rapidly as higher income levels are progressively reached. Even for such a staple as food, twice as much is spent at $3000 as at $1000. If all families receiving less than $2500 could have been raised to that income level, with no change in incomes above that, our practical capacity in 1929 would not have been sufficient to meet the consumptive market demand. (*After Moulton.*)

higher brackets, it must be self-evident that the American people are buying only a small fractional part of what they would buy if they could pay for it. We have not reached the stage in technological development where we could produce more than our people could consume. The chart suggests that we couldn't shorten the working week very much if all the people could buy what they would buy with large incomes.

In the third inquiry the investigation attempts to study the relation between savings and the consumption of goods. It appears that the saving of large funds does not necessarily guarantee that consumption will increase. The chief use of increased savings seems to be "to furnish funds with which business enterprisers may employ labor and materials in the construction of new plant and equipment if the expansion looks profitable. . . . If an increasing percentage of the national income is diverted to savings channels, the flow of funds into consumptive channels may not be of sufficient magnitude to make it profitable for all the funds which have been diverted to investment channels to be profitably employed in the construction of new plant and equipment. . . . Our capacity to produce consumer goods has been chronically in excess of the amount which consumers are able to take off the markets; and this situation is attributable to the increasing proportion of the total income which is diverted to savings channels. The result is a chronic inability

to find market outlets adequate to absorb our full productive capacity."

In the fourth part of the inquiry the investigators present a program for action — in brief, a way out. Their proposal is that the level of our existence can be raised by reduction in prices all along the line, in order to pass on to the masses the benefits which accrue through technological development and increased operating efficiency. The report holds that this program of action, designed to increase the consumption of goods, works *with* rather than *against* the competitive system by giving free play to supply and demand. The idea is that wages shall in general be maintained, but that prices shall be dropped as the efficiency of production increases. It is argued that this solution avoids the unfortunate struggle between blocs and geographical areas for special privileges. What does it profit the laborer to get six dollars or even eight dollars a day if in walking home he reads the signs, "Bacon 50 cents per pound," "Eggs 50 cents per dozen," and the like? And what satisfaction does the farmer get when he sells hogs at 12 cents a pound and eggs at 45 cents a dozen if the things he would like to buy are excessive in cost? Concerning the farmer-labor struggle the report says:

> The struggle to obtain higher living standards through the medium of higher money wages has been the cause of a long and deep-seated conflict of interests between the agricultural and urban populations. The city population fights for higher wages; the agricultural popula-

tion fights for lower prices on the things it must buy. The farm interests, having failed to obtain lower industrial prices, have recently changed their strategy and sought to force agricultural prices up. As a result we have had the development of farm coöperative organizations, the growth of agricultural tariffs, and finally, under government leadership, the restriction of agricultural output. Even though price equilibrium might be established by this method, it would nevertheless be at the sacrifice of wealth production. Whatever temporary benefits might thus be conferred, it is a method which if pursued as a long-run policy can result only in stationary or declining standards of living.

The broad highway along which economic progress must be sought is the avenue of price reductions. When this road is followed, the benefits of technological improvements are automatically conferred upon all divisions of the population. Maximum expansion of purchasing power is secured and economic equilibrium is maintained.

But there are many sub-groups in the struggle between farm and shop interests. America has been divided into numerous little nations (or blocs) in which selfishness in the form of a greedy struggle for special privileges is rapidly destroying the general welfare of all.

Forces that might normally work to pass on to the masses the benefits of the machine age are nowadays obstructed by the maneuvers of numerous blocs to get special trade agreements, price and production fixing, group tariffs, and similar advantages. In brief, groups within our borders are today killing

each other with the same club (protective tariff) that we used for so many years in defending American labor against the unfair competition provided by the lower standards of living of the laborer in other countries. The immediate effect of this interference with the free play of supply and demand is the raising of prices, and the ultimate result is the excessive piling up of savings where they will do no one very much good. The net result is a failure to pass on to the masses the benefits of increased efficiency, thus limiting the effective demands for goods.

The crux of the fundamental problem of this chapter appears to rest in finding a way to increase what the consumer can buy. His ability as a consumer has apparently come to be just as important as his ability to produce. Any program suggested as "the way out" must be evaluated by this measuring stick. If we apply this criterion to the current panaceas for our social ills, their fictitious structure is quickly revealed. A few illustrations will suffice. Let us begin with the most attractive, which is "sharing the wealth."

The argument runs as follows: Since we have an economy of plenty, we can provide the necessities and even the luxuries for everyone if only we divide the total evenly. Here we at once run into a confusion of wealth and income. We have at present something like 300 billion in wealth, including much that already belongs to the government. To share this equally we would need to go to complete sociali-

zation, and then each family might have as much as $12,000. Each family would then face the difficult task of making this amount of wealth earn enough income to provide a living with conveniences and luxuries. Perhaps a capital of $12,000 may seem like a running start to the abundant life; but, as has already been pointed out, a good share of this is in roads, battleships, monuments, public parks, schools, and colleges; and it is a little difficult to see how this part of the wealth would contribute to providing necessities. Let us confront the proponent of the "share the wealth" argument with another of his own theories, that the only hope for a more comfortable existence lies in sharing *income*. According to Moulton, "If the entire income of the nation had been divided absolutely equally, each person would have received about $673 in the most prosperous year we have ever known." On this basis one may estimate that if the total income for 1933 had been divided equally, each person would have received far less than $400. Sharing either wealth or total income equally will not prove a desirable standard of living, because this procedure does not increase the total income to be divided and does not expand the effective demand for goods.

This basic objection applies also to other proposals for economic stimulation, as, for example, the Townsend Plan and the payment of excessive bonuses to the extent to which they include factors that make them in fact disguised schemes for sharing the wealth.

Such schemes are usually like hypodermic injections which might temporarily alleviate the pain in our economic system without curing a fundamental disorder.

Let us apply the criterion next to the proposal to employ all idle persons on public works. People may be in far greater need of more and better food than they are of roads, parks, and monuments. It is obviously sensible for a community with idle people on welfare lists to use them on projects that can at the time be inexpensively built and which have long-time values. But it should be recognized that if the formula were generally applied prices might rise but standards of living remain substantially the same. We need to consider, too, that if applied indefinitely, the end result is an accumulation of public debt which tends to break down government credit.

Nor is much hope held out to us in the suggestion that we bring about a better distribution of income through the machinery of taxation, because this procedure, as in the case of other fallacious proposals, does not increase production of goods that are really needed.

By this same yardstick the proposal, popular in labor circles, that purchasing power may be raised by a general increase in money wages (as opposed to real wages), must be rejected. The gains, such as they are, go to those relatively small groups that are effectively organized, or to those that happen to be

employed by business leaders who are practical exponents of this theory. The tendency, of course, is for prices to rise, and so workers outside of these groups are likely to have to pay higher prices for the things that they buy.

Next let us see how Walter Lippmann,[1] who has been friendly to the New Deal, disposes of President Roosevelt's suggestion in his Baltimore speech to youth in which he proposed to limit the opportunity to work to persons between the ages of 18 and 65.

> The reform which the President proposes is desirable. But no man ought to propose it without making it very clear to the people that if they wish to keep everyone in school until 18 and to retire everyone at 65, the rest of the people must work very much harder and very much more efficiently.
>
> The President of the United States should not lead his people to think that they can get something for nothing. He should tell them the simple truth that the price of leisure is more work for somebody or a lower standard of life for everybody.
>
> He should tell them that the price of more education is the production of more wealth. To promise them leisure, a higher standard of life, and vastly greater educational opportunities, all of these things as a result of less work, is not only to defy common sense, but to delude the people.

Finally, let us apply the criterion to the "plowing under" concept. Whether the future historian in his

[1] This quotation is taken from the syndicated article appearing in the public press on April 16, 1936. Reprinted by special permission of the *New York Herald Tribune*.

appraisals will give greatest weight to the fine purposes of the New Deal or to their inefficient execution is impossible to predict, but it is fairly safe to guess that of the various experiments tried, probably none will look quite so bad as the curtailing of the necessities of life in times of dire need for them. Certainly there is no evidence that production has been generally in excess of consumption over a long period of years, and surely killing brood sows does not provide the bacon that hungry people need.

Assuming the validity of the yardstick, it is obvious from the preceding illustrations that many of the proposals that are accepted by a gullible public would not only fail to correct our fundamental causes of disorder, but would perhaps lead to disaster if persistently applied. There is here no intention to argue for the validity of the solution proposed by the Brookings Institution. Rather, it is the purpose to take the reader directly to a basic investigation which will be the source of many current articles and books that deal intelligently with our economic problems.

We return now to the fundamental problem of this chapter by noting that merely increasing the quantity of goods which the consumer buys is not the only step we need to take. Another reason why the gap between the standard of living and the ability to satisfy our wants is widening lies in the fact that the consumer does not have adequate protection as regards the *quality* of that which he buys. We need to remember that we can lower the standard of living

in two ways, and that of these two, decreasing the quality of the goods that people buy is probably as drastic and effective as diminishing the quantity. Quoting from *Our Times:* [1]

At present we amateur buyers are bewildered by a great variety of goods all shouting for our attention over the radio and in newspapers and periodicals. Today the consumer knows little about quality, and many merchants make use of his ignorance.

Buyers today often do not know the grades of fabrics; they cannot guard themselves against misrepresentation. "All wool" suits are often only "shoddy"; that is, re-used, short-fiber wool instead of the virgin wool of long fiber. At some stores women's hose described as silk and wool were found to consist of rayon and cotton.

Skimping in quality has become a part of the present system, for the sooner an article wears out, the more sales are made. Chairs are often finished with poor glue so that the manufacturer saves a few cents and the purchaser loses dollars. Expensive dresses are poorly stitched, so that they pull apart at the seams after a few wearings.

Meats are often misrepresented. Common and medium grades of steer and bull beef are sold as prime beef. Mutton of low quality or cut is offered for lamb. Cuts from old sows pass as young pig pork.

Furthermore, consumers know little about basic prices in relation to values. Tooth pastes are in every medicine cabinet at a high price. Precipitated chalk, or a mixture of it with a little bicarbonate of soda, can be

[1] *Our Times.* Specimen Issue. Published semi-monthly during the school year by American Education Press, Inc., 40 South Third Street, Columbus, Ohio. Reprinted by special permission of the publishers.

used just as effectively as any tooth paste on the market. A year's supply for a small family is one pound and costs 35 to 40 cents, or the cost of one tube of paste.

The trend in marketing is sometimes so destructive that products are sold which are dangerous to health. A steady diet of bran breakfast foods is bad for most people, yet millions of cartons are sold. Dr. W. G. Morgan, in a United States Public Health Service radio broadcast, said: "Whereas one third of those eating bran are able to take it without injury, by far the larger proportion of bran eaters develop a deep-seated irritation in one part or another of the intestinal tract."

The use of preservatives is often very dangerous to health. The hamburger has been very popular among young people. Unfortunately it is possible to take stale, partly decayed meat and, by adding some of the chemical preservative called sodium sulphite, turn it into odorless meat with a fresh, juicy red color. This chemical can do injury to the digestive tract.

This seems to be a rather dark picture of the level of consumer protection on which we live. We have been so busy encouraging the producer, from colonial days on, that we have almost forgotten the consumer — without whom none of our farms or factories could exist. However, there are constructive movements now under way.

The Federal Government now has several agencies which are fighting for the consumer, but under severe handicaps. The Public Health Service was a pioneer in using radio broadcasts advising the consumer on the protection of his health. But when the advice to eat less meat in summer was broadcast, the Secretary of the Treasury, who controls the Public Health Service, ordered a censorship of all future broadcasts. The livestock associations and meat packers had protested!

The Department of Agriculture has done much for the consumer. The Bureau of Home Economics has worked hard to educate the consumer about diets, budgets, child care. Now it is beginning to set up consumer specifications so that the ordinary buyer will be able to purchase as the government does, by specification.

The Food and Drug Administration, though handicapped by many restrictions — no publicity, no control over advertising, few powers to punish — has done much to protect us. Agents are even now stopping trucks to inspect apples for evidences of poisonous spray, or checking oysters as they are brought in from the sea. They are able to control what the labels on foods and drugs say.

The Bureau of Animal Industry carries on its work of meat inspection, which has done so much to cut down the danger of infection. Visit a packing plant some day and see the work done.

The Bureau of Standards not only checks weights and measures but also checks many standard goods to see that they are kept up to agreed standards of quality.

Merchants throughout the country, alert to the need for protecting the public, have organized Better Business Bureaus in many cities, to expose sharp practices both in advertising and salesmanship.

The bulk of the price paid by the consumer represents the cost of selling the product to him and not the cost of making it. How can this cost be reduced? Throughout the nation, consumer coöperative societies are meeting this problem by giving the consumer the benefit of lower selling costs.

The schools are beginning to play a large rôle in consumer education. They are increasingly extending their teaching to problems of diet, health, and clothing. Social Science and Home Economics teachers are con-

centrating on the protection of the consumer, and the reaction of the students is enthusiastic.[1]

The vast gap between our wants and our ability to satisfy them is widening, but let us not deceive ourselves that the people are going to be satisfied to return to the simple life of their pioneer fathers. If they were willing to do so, many who are today classified as below the "mere subsistence level" might consider themselves as reveling in the greatest luxury. The poverty line is a psychological one. You are desperately poor if you think you are. Poverty is the inability to buy the things which the standards of the group require. In some parts of our country, welfare agencies have permitted the recipients of welfare to drive automobiles, thus making the traditional list of the necessities of life read "food, shelter, clothing, and the automobile."

For a time a million workers in New York were threatening a disastrous strike because they believed that $93.50 per month on projects financed under the program of the PWA was not adequate. This episode is a symptom of troubles ahead of us. Clearly, the masses in cities at least are going to be very restless as the gap between *wants* and *things* widens. Neither is it to be assumed that this widening gap is altogether a bad thing for society or for the indi-

[1] It is not clear why this excellent editorial fails to mention such efforts to protect the consumer as are represented by the American Medical Association, the American Standards Association, Consumers Research, and the National Consumers League.

vidual. But its existence should be recognized if we are to deal intelligently with the situation.

We must find a solution to the basic problem of our chapter in order that we may postpone the next depression and keep the devastating forces at a minimum if and when it comes.

### EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

There is seldom just one best way to do a thing; perhaps there is no one best solution for each of our economic and social problems. It is more likely that for our situation there may be several good formulas, each with its special advantages. Surely there are many things that we could do to improve our existence, and certainly there are a vast number of fallacious panaceas that are thrust at us through the radio, the movies, and the press. How to select a desirable social program from several good ones, and how to reject the pernicious, is the ever-present problem of the intelligent citizen. He needs in his thinking to ferret out hidden and selfish motives from superficially attractive and plausible schemes that promise all things to all men. This is not easy to do in the days of depression, when the quack doctors flourish and thrive on the gullibility of uninformed and ignorant citizens who, driven by despair, do not stop, even, to look a gift horse in the mouth.

The obligation of the school and the difficulty of its task is altogether obvious. A desirable proposal, which has value for the long pull, at once encounters

severe handicaps in the competition with mere palliatives for our social ailments. A fundamental solution may often involve a delay of immediate benefits, and it may require careful study of relationships that often are not readily seen. For every citizen who can understand a Moulton argument, there are probably a dozen who seize in gullible fashion a proposal of the Huey Long type. In a recent Congressional investigation, one of the leading exponents of the Townsend Plan admitted under oath that he had never "cracked a book" in economics, though his plan involved the expenditures of sums so vast as to overwhelm the intellect, and this notwithstanding the fact that no serious student of economics has to date admitted its feasibility. The highly volatile character of our people, suggested by the rapid and successful spread of numerous fallacious movements often amounting to little more than selfish schemes for collecting initiation fees for the benefit of leaders, indicates the desperate struggle which our schools face if the democratic method is to survive in future critical times and if civilization is to be preserved by the development of an orderly program of change.

It is reasonable to assume that our future citizens will not deal in the most effective way with the problems that they will later meet unless they can be given some practice beforehand in the thoughtful analysis of parallel situations. Nor will such practice be of highest value unless it be realistic. Children need to look at all the facts that can be obtained in the time

that is available and to consider carefully the alternative proposals. This means that the schools must bear down on practice in reflective thinking. Discussions of controversial issues should not only be permitted but encouraged in order that in any future crises we may decide important issues on the basis of thought rather than emotions. Certain steps in reflective thinking must be emphasized to bring about this desired end. We can define clearly a problem which a class is investigating. We can list all the possible alternatives that pupils can suggest as the result of their reading and thinking, and we can discuss all of the implications with the utmost freedom with the hope that they will, as future mature voters, unselfishly select the solution that is best for society.

Moreover, we can teach pupils to do wide reading and to check the writings of one author against another in order to develop standards and criteria which may serve them as fine sieves for screening the grain from the mountains of chaff.

At this point, however, the teacher faces a dilemma, for providing practice in realistic thinking for children is probably not as simple as it appears to be. A sound program of mental hygiene suggests that children should not worry too much, or for too long a period of time, over issues for which immediate action by them is not possible. There are teachers who argue that their children should not be distressed by the cares and problems of a wicked and

disorganized world. Such teachers would provide in the school a temporary refuge from reality. When we consider the fact that most young people now spend from twelve to fifteen years of their lives in school, and that this period is a very large fraction of a total life span, there may be much to be said in favor of a school which will deliberately avoid the task of preparing for life as it is, and provide instead a haven of security. The discerning teacher, perhaps, can avoid the evil in both extremes by devising and illustrating the principles which he wishes to drive home, in situations that are immediate and for which some practical action by the pupil is possible. Shall the members of a school group, for instance, engage in a lottery to pull an organization out of financial trouble? This question children may well debate and decide, for it illustrates a principle that has application to the larger social unit.

Psychology suggests that it is undesirable to stimulate an impulse for which there is no possible immediate outlet in action. Teachers, in a worthy effort to be realistic, may in the end merely recall again and again to the pupil's mind something that had better be forgotten; e.g., the lugubrious tale that is being constantly harped at home, of how Dad lost his money. To teach all the facts relating to the Italian-Ethiopian struggle would seem to be the clear duty of any teacher dealing with this topic in fixing attitudes. However, it is well to remember that the typical pupil in our classes cannot do anything about

this situation for many a day, and that the emotional indignation involved may not make for mental health, particularly if the pupil is the idealistic type. The forces tending toward the disintegration of personality are subtle and elusive, as any observing teacher can testify who has noted the struggle which some of his finest pupils have made in an effort to span the gap between their ingenuous idealisms and an imperfect world. Still another illustration is provided in the programs for youth congresses which may sometimes set goals so remote that the net result will be a feeling of futility, at the very time when youth should be rolling up its sleeves and going to work to create a better world, with something of the courage and industry that characterized its pioneer ancestors.

The school can also face the fact that it is highly improbable that the wants of all individuals for desirable things can be met in any social order conceivable. Nor is there any flawless reason for believing that it would be a good thing if they could be met. During the depression, many families of former wealth and means found themselves much happier when driven to a simpler existence. As the curbstone philosopher, Kin Hubbard, says: "It is pretty hard to tell what does bring happiness — poverty and wealth have both failed." It is not at all fantastic to suggest that the schools may do a good deal to bring back the pioneer spirit, with a consideration of the deeper values inherent in the simple life, free

from an excessive number of things. In this connection the movement for creative education holds some hope for us, though perhaps not all of its exponents realize the extent to which they have hit upon a sound method of combating the evil effects of a revolution that has turned the "Man-Who-Made-Nearly-Everything-He-Used" into the "Man-Who-Buys-Nearly-Everything-He-Uses."

Finally, the teacher may expect an increasing demand that the curriculum shall include more materials designed to protect the consumer. There is a good deal that the school can do in a practical way, not only for its pupils but for the adults of a community. A book in mathematics, for example, should have at least one chapter on the arithmetic of the consumer. Courses in home making, social studies, and general shop obviously can give an emphasis to the interests of the consumer.

ISSUES SUGGESTED FOR GROUP DISCUSSION

1. Organize a ten-minute talk in which you give the main facts that present the picture of the national scene in *Rich Man, Poor Man.*
   If you have been able to find any data that seem to disprove the situation as pictured in the book, *Rich Man, Poor Man,* report them to your group.
   Have you any way of knowing or finding out to what extent the picture presented in *Rich Man, Poor Man* holds for your community?
2. Do you agree with the following? "One of the most stupid moves ever made is the propaganda for the curtailment of school services by chambers of com-

merce and manufacturers' associations, for the school is the most effective instrument for raising the standard of living, thus causing people to buy more and better things."

3. Do you believe that the schools should foster the pioneer spirit or the simple life? If so, have you been able to find any curricular materials for this purpose?
4. In what way is the proposal to have factory workers live on small farms related to the gap between wants and things?
5. Have you known a person of high school or college age who became disintegrated by worrying about things that he couldn't possibly correct?
6. According to David Cushman Coyle the American people want four things:

   (1) They want a chance to earn a self-respecting income.
   (2) They want a reasonable degree of personal security.
   (3) They want to enjoy the fruits of modern technology.
   (4) They want freedom.

   Read and enjoy Coyle's delightful little volume, *Brass Tacks* (see Optional References). Present his solution for "the way out" and compare it with the proposal suggested by the investigation of the Brookings Institution.

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# *Chapter Three*

## The Increasing Concentration of Economic Control without a Corresponding Acceptance of Social Responsibility

OUR economic system in its practical working is not unlike a game of marbles which stops every so often because the larger boys have won most of the marbles. Our efforts have been directed toward keeping the game from stopping quite so often, and toward developing ways and means of absorbing the shock when it does stop.

About two thirds of our American industrial wealth has shifted from a large number of small organizations to a few large financial corporations. It is estimated that one or two of our largest organizations directly or indirectly write the pay checks that go to more than half a million families.

In the olden days the Church controlled the welfare of the social order. The struggle between Church and State left the State in control. The development of the modern corporation has created a force that can and perhaps does challenge the power of the State. Will the corporation dominate the State, or submit to control? Can the two live side by side with relatively little interrelationship? The large corporation's fear of Congressional investiga-

tion, and the insistence of politicians on such investigations, suggest that a titanic struggle may lie ahead.

The rate of growth of the big companies, together with what perhaps may be expected, is presented in the following quotations from the book by Berle and Means (pages 40-41) cited at the end of this chapter:

> If the wealth of the large corporations and that of all corporations should each continue to increase for the next twenty years at its average annual rate for the twenty years from 1909 to 1929, 70 per cent of all corporate activity would be carried on by two hundred corporations by 1950. If the more rapid rates of growth from 1924 to 1929 were maintained for the next twenty years, 85 per cent of corporate wealth would be held by two hundred huge units. It would take only forty years at the 1909-1929 rates or only thirty years at the 1924-1929 rates for all corporate activity and practically all industrial activity to be absorbed by two hundred giant companies. If the indicated growth of the large corporations and of the national wealth were to be effective from now until 1950, half of the national wealth would be under the control of big companies at the end of that period.

This concentration of wealth in a few large organizations is possibly justifiable and might even make for simplification of our social order, if such giant organizations could be operated in the interests of all concerned. It is quite clear that the purchasing power of the worker can be increased if he can buy more and better things at lower cost. But this requires mass production and large organization. It is pathetic to see the keeper of a little store, who all his

life has been a substantial citizen in his village, conquered overnight by a vast chain-store system. But in the end this may be the way that the workingman will get fresher and cleaner fruits and vegetables, and more of them.

In the shift to the large organization, a good many things are happening that are hard for the common man to understand, largely because we explain them with words that no longer mean what they did. The meanings of such traditional terms as "private property," "wealth," "private enterprise," "the profit motive," and "competition" have undergone considerable modification since the days when Adam Smith wrote his classic work on *The Wealth of Nations* (published 1776). For example, Adam Smith rejected the stock company as a business mechanism, expressing his belief that efficient operation would be impossible.

To Adam Smith and his followers, private property was a unity involving possession. He assumed that ownership and control were combined. Today, in the modern corporation, this unit has been broken. *Passive property* — specifically, shares of stocks or bonds — gives its possessors an interest in an enterprise but gives them practically no control over it, and involves no responsibility. *Active property* — plant, good will, organizations, and so forth, which make up the actual enterprise — is controlled by individuals who, almost invariably, have only minor ownership interests in it.[1]

[1] Adolf A. Berle and Gardiner C. Means, *The Modern Corporation and Private Property*, page 346. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932. Reprinted by special permission.

From this it is clear that a share of stock is today only a token representing ill-protected rights for the individual and almost no control in determining how the organization shall serve the welfare of all concerned — owners who supply the capital, the workers who create, and the consumers who give value to the product. A citizen who owns fifty or even one hundred shares in General Motors and American Telephone and Telegraph has a considerable investment, but he has about as much control over these organizations as he does over the tides.

A share of stock was once a fixed participation in property, accompanied by a considerable degree of control over that property. Today it is a participation stripped of any of its original protection and subject to indefinite variation. The real control lies in the individuals who manage the active property. Risk and control are exercised today by two very different groups of people. The stock owner furnishes money and takes the risk; whereas a special group, often holding only a few shares, exercises control and management. The reader may perhaps recall Gerard's list of sixty men who were alleged to control the economic wealth of the United States. The degree of control by a few individuals over vast areas of economic wealth, and the complexity of organization brought about by the pyramiding of holding companies, goes beyond the average reader's imagination, if not beyond the understanding even of the people who manage them. Witness the fact

that in a recent Congressional investigation of the Associated Gas and Electric Company, even the high officials did not seem to know how the gears really meshed; so intricate and complicated are the various controls in that cancerous organization that a lack of understanding, rather than an intention to deceive, may have been the real explanation of the vague and confused testimony given in that investigation. The individual owner is steadily being relegated in the development of a huge industrial oligarchy. Indeed, it is probable that a vast number of owners forget that they are such, as one may infer from the fact that the Government cannot find the owners of Liberty Bonds totaling the huge sum of approximately $180,000,000, though these bonds no longer earn interest for their owners.

The foregoing discussion has an obvious bearing on the statement, widely circulated for propaganda purposes, that the stocks of American industries are widely held by the masses in small amounts. The statement fortunately is true, there are about 2,640,000 stockholders in twelve of America's largest industries alone; but the implication that this means control is utterly false.

We shall not need to turn to Communism or to Socialism in order to see increasing social pressure focused upon our giant corporations, demanding that they be used for the general welfare of society. The fundamental principles of our American Constitution would no doubt prove adequate to insure con-

trol of big business in the interests of the general welfare of our citizens if we could only get them recognized and respected by selfish politicians and greedy capitalists. As Beale [1] points out, there are leaders in American life who "talk freely of protecting American ideals and traditions, but they have never studied the writings of men like Lincoln, Madison, Jefferson, and Franklin sufficiently to know that they themselves perpetually violate the ideas for which these men struggled. One wonders if they have ever read Jefferson's First Inaugural Address or the Declaration of Independence. If Thomas Jefferson were alive today and tried in an American school to interpret the Declaration of Independence in terms of modern America, the patriotic organizations would get him barred as a dangerous radical."

In times of depression, the social pressure on the men controlling the large economic organizations, enjoining them to assume a reasonable amount of social responsibility, is especially acute. It has been suggested that a large measure of freedom may be useful in the early stages when a giant organization is being created, but that there comes a time in the development of such organizations when social con-

[1] Howard K. Beale, "Forces That Control the Schools," *Harper's Magazine,* Vol. CLXIX (October, 1934), pages 604–605. Beale had in mind patriotic organizations, but his comment would seem to apply to unsocial leaders of industry who use as a smoke screen for their own nefarious practices the charge that those who wish to exercise greater control are extremists.

trols must be applied to those who are remote from the consumers and the workers.

The American corporation has ceased to be a private business device and has become a social institution. It is appropriate to paraphrase Cleveland's famous thesis to make it read, "*A private business* is a public trust." It is reasonable to assume that a man of genius should have abundant satisfactions and generous profits as a just compensation for operating a billion-dollar corporation; but it is unthinkable, in this interrelated society, that he should be allowed to own and to manage that corporation with these selfish motives. Nor can society afford to permit him to be the sole judge of his motives, for the temptation to delude himself into thinking that he is a mellow philanthropist is apparently too strong. Fortunately there are already excellent examples of men of large affairs — as, for instance, Edward Filene and John D. Rockefeller, Jr.— who are keenly sensitive to their extraordinary social responsibility. The complete story of the large number of humane and courageous executives of business, who in the darkest months of the depression took their organizations to the edge of bankruptcy by using undistributed profits for operating their shops with ever-increasing losses, thus providing their employees with the necessities of life, has not been told. But it is a report that the Congress of American Industry might well make, for it would include many instances where men have made such courageous decisions unselfishly, with no hope

of reward other than to know themselves as decent and human. As further evidence of a wholesome change of attitude, we now present three quotations, all from Alfred P. Sloan, Jr., president of General Motors Corporation:

In view of the fact that during the past few years, in nearly all countries of the world, there has been a shifting of power between politics and economics, today's economic problems involve political policies and unfortunately for us all, the political consideration. Therefore, there arises a new relationship between industry and government and on this point it is essential that the Corporation's position be set forth concretely. There must be no misunderstanding.[1]

I am convinced that industry's responsibilities can no longer be adequately discharged, however efficient and effective it may be, with the mere physical production of goods and services. As our national economy becomes more and more involved, the margin of error within which we can operate and maintain economic and social equilibrium, to say nothing of the vital urge for progress, is being constantly narrowed. Hence I believe that the time has been reached when a much broader responsibility must be assumed. We must develop ways and means by which to better correlate the industrial machine and its component parts with the national economy as a whole, in order to more effectively promote human progress and security and to advance civilization. Inaction will ultimately mean the challenging of industry's position. Failure will bring, sooner or later, the urge for more and more interference from without — Government

[1] Quoted from statement sent to stockholders, March 11, 1936.

in business. And, if we fail to recognize and discharge this broadened responsibility, have we any adequate right to complain of the penalties that we must pay?[1]

There are involved two questions which should be defined and the policies with respect to these, established:

*First.* What is the yardstick that the Corporation is to use in evaluating such economic policies as arise? For that yardstick I turn to the Constitution of the United States, the preamble of which recites, as one of its high purposes:

"To Promote the General Welfare of all the People."

That is the yardstick that will govern the Corporation in such positions as it may take.

*Second.* What action is to be taken by the Corporation with respect to promoting such policies as in its judgment will serve to advance the objective just mentioned?

(*a*) The Corporation will assume the responsibility of informing its stockholders and the community at large in every proper way as to the facts as it sees them with respect to such economic problems as are likely to influence the Corporation's progress and its ability to contribute toward the objective. In no better way can the facts with respect to industry's progress and the latter's influence on human advancement and security be presented to the forum of public opinion. In no better way can there be developed an understanding on the part of the community as a whole as to what industry contributes; why it contributes; how it can contribute more; and why it may contribute less. The more our people

[1] Quoted from an address delivered at the annual dinner of the Congress of American Industry, Commodore Hotel, New York City, December 4, 1935.

discuss and debate these vital facts the better will be their understanding — the surer and wiser will be the conduct of our national affairs.

(*b*) The Corporation can have no concern with and under no circumstances will take part in promoting the interest of any political agency. It will neither directly nor indirectly permit the use of its position, its properties, or its organization, to that end. It will solely concern itself with establishing in the public mind a broader knowledge, a greater understanding, and a fairer discussion of all the facts, thus developing a better foundation for intelligent action on the part of the community as a whole.[1]

But the evidence of the general failure of large organizations to assume full social responsibility is common knowledge. When the economic storm broke in 1929, some of our powerful organizations terminated all contractual relations with workmen no longer needed and left them stranded, to be carried as burdens by local welfare organizations, thus ignoring the fact that some of their laborers had spent a lifetime contributing to the wealth of these organizations. Then, too, one may read the glowing accounts of gifted publicity agents describing the excessive care that is bestowed upon workers by patriarchal employers, only to find the employees living in endless, monotonous rows of dilapidated shacks that do not protect them against either heat or cold. Or one may be told that a generous corporation has provided each of its employees with an individual

[1] Quoted from statement sent to stockholders, March 11, 1936.

garden, only to find that this garden, which the employee is expected to prize as his own, is half a mile from his home and is nothing more than the temporary assignment of a small rectangle in a vacant lot that eventually will be used for another factory building. Moreover, one sees pictures of beautiful school buildings where the children of workmen are being trained in the traits of good citizenship, but the picture fails to show the miserable little back yards that constitute the real playground of the gang and which operate as a crime school to undo all the good that might be accomplished by the regular teacher.

Next, let us consider a rather long quotation from Berle and Means (pages 356-357) which is significant; first, because we have here the concluding paragraph of the most important research project available, one that was financed by the Social Science Research Council of America and carried on under the direction of the Columbia University Council for Research in the Social Sciences; and second, because this research project seems to have had competent guidance by a representative of the legal profession, and suggests the possibilities of adequate control under the American Constitution as it now exists.

Neither the claims of ownership nor those of control can stand against the paramount interests of the community. The present claims of both contending parties now in the field have been weakened by the developments described in this book. It remains only for the claims of the community to be put forward with clarity

and force. Rigid enforcement of property rights as a temporary protection against plundering by control would not stand in the way of the modification of these rights in the interests of other groups. When a convincing system of community obligations is worked out and is generally accepted, in that moment the passive property right of today must yield before the larger interests of society. Should the corporate leaders, for example, set forth a program comprising fair wages, security to employees, reasonable service to their public, and stabilization of business, all of which would divert a portion of the profits from the owners of passive property, and should the community generally accept such a scheme as a logical and human solution of industrial difficulties, the interests of passive property owners would have to give way. Courts would almost of necessity be forced to recognize the result, justifying it by whatever of the many legal theories they might choose. It is conceivable — indeed, it seems almost essential if the corporate system is to survive — that the "control" of the great corporations should develop into a purely neutral technocracy, balancing a variety of claims by various groups in the community and assigning to each a portion of the income stream on the basis of public policy rather than private cupidity.

In still larger view, the modern corporation may be regarded not simply as one form of social organization but potentially (if not yet actually) as the dominant institution of the modern world. In every age, the major concentration of power has been based upon the dominant interest of that age. The strong man has, in his time, striven to be cardinal or pope, prince or cabinet minister, bank president or partner in the House of Morgan. During the Middle Ages, the church, exercising spiritual power, dominated Europe and gave to it a

unity at a time when both political and economic power were diffused. With the rise of the modern state, political power, concentrated into a few large units, challenged the spiritual interest as the strongest bond of human society. Out of the long struggle between church and state which followed, the state emerged victorious; nationalist politics superseded religion as the basis of the major unifying organization of the western world. Economic power still remained diffused.

The rise of the modern corporation has brought a concentration of economic power which can compete on equal terms with the modern state — economic power versus political powers, each strong in its own field. The state seeks in some aspects to regulate the corporation, while the corporation, steadily becoming more powerful, makes every effort to avoid such regulation. Where its own interests are concerned, it even attempts to dominate the state. The future may see the economic organism, now typified by the corporation, not only on an equal plane with the state, but possibly even superseding it as the dominant form of social organization. The law of corporations, accordingly, might well be considered as a potential constitutional law for the new economic state, while business practice is increasingly assuming the aspect of economic statesmanship.

### EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

Those who will exercise *active* control in the near future are now in our schools. They will aid or obstruct the solution of the fundamental problem of combining social responsibility with the possession of economic goods. Their contribution will depend largely on the degree to which selfish motives are dis-

carded and social attitudes are inculcated. Alert students of the American scene have pointed out again and again that selfishness is the root of most of our troubles. The school has its share of responsibility for fixing the right social attitudes in the future leaders of big business.

Then, too, teachers need to be realistic and to recognize that the concepts expressed by the terminology of an earlier political economy have been lost or modified. The old words no longer fit the new situation.

The school, in its effort to bring about decisions of public policies that will be based on reasoned and intelligent discussion, is in a desperate race with devastating forces that make for chaos. The issue is whether needed changes can be brought about step by step at a rate commensurate with society's ability to adjust to them, or whether the evils shall be permitted to accumulate and create emergencies in which large-scale changes will be made when the masses, driven by fear, will resort to violence. That educators are well aware of the new point of view with respect to the control of our complex national economy is evidenced by the following quotation:

> Cumulative evidence supports the conclusion that, in the United States as in other countries, the age of individualism and *laissez faire* in economy and government is closing and that a new age of collectivism is emerging.
>
> As to the specific form which this "collectivism," this integration and interdependence, is taking and will take in the future, the evidence at hand is by no means clear

or unequivocal. It may involve the limiting or supplanting of private property by public property or it may entail the preservation of private property, extended and distributed among the masses. Most likely, it will issue from a process of experimentation and will represent a composite of historic doctrines and social conceptions yet to appear. Almost certainly it will involve a larger measure of compulsory as well as voluntary cooperation of citizens in the conduct of the complex national economy, a corresponding enlargement of the functions of government, and an increasing state intervention in fundamental branches of economy previously left to individual discretion and initiative — a state intervention that in some instances may be direct and mandatory and in others indirect and facilitative. In any event the Commission is convinced by its interpretation of available empirical data that the actually integrating economy of the present day is the forerunner of a consciously integrated society in which individual economic actions and individual property rights will be altered and abridged.

The emerging age is particularly an age of transition. It is marked by numerous and severe tensions arising out of the conflict between the actual trend toward integrated economy and society, on the one side, and the traditional practices, dispositions, ideas, and institutional arrangements inherited from the passing age of individualism, on the other. In all the recommendations that follow, the transitional character of the present epoch is recognized.

Underlying and illustrative of these tensions are privation in the midst of plenty, violations of fiduciary trust, gross inequalities in income and wealth, widespread racketeering and banditry, wasteful use of natural resources, unbalanced distribution and organization of

labor and leisure, the harnessing of science to individualism in business enterprise, the artificiality of political boundaries and divisions, the subjection of public welfare to the egoism of private interests, the maladjustment of production and consumption, persistent tendencies toward economic instability, disproportionate growth of debt and property claims in relation to production, deliberate destruction of goods and withdrawal of efficiency from production, accelerating tempo of panics, crises, and depressions attended by ever-wider destruction of capital and demoralization of labor, struggles among nations for markets and raw materials leading to international conflicts and wars.

If historical knowledge is any guide, these tensions, accompanied by oscillations in popular opinion, public policy, and the fortunes of the struggle for power, will continue until some approximate adjustment is made between social thought, social practice, and economic realities, or until society, exhausted by the conflict and at the end of its spiritual and inventive resources, sinks back into a more primitive order of economy and life. Such is the long-run view of social development in general, and of American life in particular, which must form the background for any educational program designed to prepare either children or adults for their coming trials, opportunities, and responsibilities.[1]

In conclusion there are at least two partial solutions for the problem of bringing about a change of social thought through which the operation of business units, large or small, shall be considered a social

[1] *Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission,* pages 16–19. Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934. Reprinted by special permission of the publishers.

service; and both of these solutions rest largely on the schools. First, we can train more business leaders who will strive for the higher satisfactions that come through a life of devotion to the public welfare. This suggestion is admittedly idealistic, and probably we can never rely on it wholly; but every effort in this direction will yield valuable returns. Second, the school can increase the number of persons who will vote with understanding, in order that whatever control will be necessary may be secured in the democratic way, without violence, and with enough speed to avoid subjecting any one generation to the suffering of too many severe depressions.

### ISSUES SUGGESTED FOR GROUP DISCUSSION

1. Read the following tentative list of items which, a certain discussion group[1] believed, characterize present economic conditions:

   (1) *Maintenance of private property the chief motive force in our economic order*

   Property formerly held in the form of tangible wealth, such as land and buildings. Much property today held in the form of stocks and bonds.

   Earlier type of administration carried on by the individual owner. With the rise of corporations administration carried on by corporation officials.

[1] Lincoln School Studies Society, *Lincoln School Research Studies.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935. Reprinted by permission.

Today ultimate control of the use of property often neither in the hands of individual owners nor of corporation officials but in the hands of non-owning bankers, insurance company heads, and financial engineers who make up an industrial aristocracy.

Private property and private profit protected by the Constitution of the United States, by legislative enactments, and by Supreme Court decisions.

(2) *Sanctity of contract and free competition basic principles in our economic system*

Sanctity of contract guaranteed against state interference by Article I, Section 10, of the United States Constitution, and protected in large measure by Supreme Court decisions.

Fair operation of contract based on assumption of freedom and equality of contracting parties and stability of money value.

Sanctity of contract based on assumption that credit relationships shall not expand beyond the point where they can be fulfilled.

Competition based on assumption of absence of monopolistic controls.

Government effort to guarantee free competition made through the Sherman and Clayton Anti-Trust Acts. More recent attempt to regulate competition by means of NRA industrial codes (now void).

(3) *Mechanization of industry*

Industry dominated by the scientific method of exact measurement.

Manufacture characterized by specialization and mass production.

Emphasis placed on standard products, not on the unique in production.

Markets developed through advertising and high-powered salesmanship.

High productive efficiency sought in internal plant organization.

Major decisions in industry placed in the hands of administrators of business who are advised by technical engineers.

(4) *Economic strengths of our economic system*

Tremendous productive capacity of our farms and factories.

Close integration of American industries with each other and with mines, industries, and the production of raw materials of the rest of the world.

Large natural resources.

Great quantity of man power.

Widespread technological and managerial ability.

(5) *Major economic weaknesses of our economic system*

Maladjustment of production and distribution in the sense that people making automobiles want more food, clothing, and luxury goods, while people who are making these goods want more automobiles, yet neither receives more of what the other is capable of producing.

Inequitable distribution of wealth and income, which puts too little purchasing power into the hands of the great mass of the American people.

Absence of mandatory social controls and lack of planning of our economic system in the interest of the public welfare.

The sickness of such basic industries as those of building, coal, textiles, and farming.

Tremendous financial drain in the cost of past and future wars.

(*a*) Check each of the preceding items that is related to the trend discussed in this chapter.

(*b*) Are there items which you think do not characterize present economic conditions?

2. Prepare a brief report indicating the extent to which stocks are owned by the masses in America. (Suggestion: It is the practice of corporations to issue reports from time to time that indicate the number of stockholders.)
3. Summarize the paragraphs that deal with the problem discussed in this section, in Chapters II and III of the *Thirteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence,* contributed by Fred S. Deibler.
4. Prepare a summary for your group of pages 333-352 in *The Modern Corporation and Private Property,* by Berle and Means.
5. If you have taken formal courses in political economy, make a list of the words whose meanings have been modified since you first learned them.
6. Do you know of a clear-cut case in which big business has refused to coöperate with the government? At the time that the Government was attempting to enforce the NRA codes, did it "crack down" on every large corporation? Assuming that large corporations may have valid claims when they resist control by government officials, what possible difficulties for social welfare do you foresee in similar future situations?

## MINIMUM READING

*Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission,* Chapters I to III. Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934.

DIEBLER, FREDERICK S. "The Evolution of Present-day Economic Problems," Chapter II, and "Plans for Economic Security," Chapter II, in *Social Change and Education. Thirteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence.* Washington: National Education Association, 1935.

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BERLE, ADOLF A., and MEANS, GARDINER C. *The Modern Corporation and Private Property.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932. (xiii + 396 pages.)

CHASE, STUART. "Parade of the Grave Diggers," *Harper's Magazine,* Vol. CLXXI (August, 1935), pages 316–328.

"Recent Social Trends," in the *New York Times* for Monday, January 2, 1933, Section 2.

# *Chapter Four*

## The Weakening of Controls for the Integration of the Child's Personality Exercised by Religion and the Home

THE church and the family are more concerned with the values of life than are other social institutions. As is pointed out in "Recent Social Trends," "The rôle of the church in society was at one time extraordinarily broad. It dominated international relations; it was the patron of the arts; it taught the ethics of family life; medical practice and healing were among its functions; and education and learning were sponsored almost wholly by it." In like manner the home in early days exercised important social functions, for it was "the chief economic institution, the factory of the time, producing almost all that man consumed. It was the main educational institution." In the days of our early ancestors the father was the priest, the warrior, the governor, and the hunter; while the mother was the nurse, the teacher, the agriculturist, and the manufacturer. These two institutions, when coöperating, exercised powerful influences for integrating and stabilizing the personality of the child.

The church and the home are losing the influences which foster the personality needs of children. Without any reference to the importance of the func-

tions of the church and the significance of the home, one must admit the decrease in the *quantitative* aspects of the controls exercised by these institutions. It will be helpful to note a few random observations on the tendencies of each institution as reported in sociological studies. From 1906 to 1926 the attendance at Sunday schools increased less rapidly than did the number of children in the total population. Moreover, the small fractional part of a week that children spend in Sunday school, the obsolete curricula, the inefficient teaching procedures, and the general lack of adequate training in religious education by ministers make it unlikely that the Sunday school could, at present, exercise wide influences on youth. It appears that the ratio of the circulation of Protestant religious publications to all periodicals has declined. There appears to be no reliable report as to the extent to which youth attends church, but one needs only to sit in the galleries of a crowded church to note the predominance of gray heads. Youth is not in attendance. While the individual church of today may, in the light of the task it faces, render services far more valuable than the church of an earlier day, the general trend of the institution is one of loss in the control of youth.

In like manner it is easy to list the home's losses in influence. It has lost nearly all its economic function to industry, and many of its social functions to government. The family is decreasing in size, and there is no longer the socializing value of growing up

with brothers and sisters. Mass recreation is causing many members of the home to spend much time outside. One of every five, or possibly six, homes in the United States is broken by divorce, and many more by separation. In at least one large city school of New York City, 40 per cent of the children do not have the benefit of ordinary parental guidance at home, for they live with only one parent, with other relatives, or with friends. And besides, one of every eight or nine married women in the United States is working outside of the home for a living.

Undoubtedly there are some slight compensating factors. Mere observation would suggest that among the educated groups there are more and more people vitally concerned that the standards of the home, in its efforts to achieve the chief goal of happiness, shall be raised. There is more reliable information available about the education of young children; and the number of parents, especially mothers, enrolled in child study groups seems to be rapidly increasing. But even the educated mother, with adequate financial means and with excessive, quixotic concern for an only child — even she cannot hope to stem the tide that is complicating the guidance functions exercised by the home of an earlier day. The cinema, the automobile, all of the vast and multiform instrumentalities of social preoccupation have operated to draw the child more and more from the home and away from the parental control.

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

The shifting rôles of the church and the home demand that the school assume more and more responsibility for the integration of personality. So far as a philosophy of education is concerned, the school has already accepted this responsibility. We speak glibly of educating the whole child. As an ideal, this is admirable. In practice, it is largely meaningless. Any mother who has attempted to educate the whole child for each of three or four lively youngsters is likely to be completely exhausted at evening. Any father who has tried it with one is a wreck by noon. But society has deposited "whole children" in excessive numbers at the teacher's desk. It is now considered that twenty, thirty, forty, or fifty pupils is a reasonable hourly load for the teacher. Indeed, some investigators have concluded that since no differences could be detected when measured by standardized tests, a teacher can be just as effective in teaching very large classes as with small classes! This suggestion came at an unfortunate time; for administrators, frantic under the pressure of retrenchment, were looking for ways of factoryizing education, and this at the very time when it should have been personalized.

The teacher in the modern school is expected to be well versed in social, economic, and educational trends, to guide numerous extracurricular activities, to carry a heavy load of classroom instruction, to take

an active part in the affairs of the community, and, finally, to integrate the personality of the child. It may be that we have come to the breaking point. To take over this job from the home and the church means that the teacher must know as much about the child as these two institutions knew. It means not only the keeping, but also the use, of a more adequate system of records. Vast sums of money would seem to be needed if the schools are ever adequately to exercise this function. A prominent educator, who until recently faced practical problems as the superintendent of schools in one of our large cities, has made the statement that we need to double the number of teachers in our schools. It is indeed a poor principal who cannot see the need for twice as many technical workers in his building as he now has. Any ultra-progressive school, making claims that it does anything special in the integration of personality, is a school in which the cost per pupil is very high as judged by society. The Kellogg All-Year Camps, the Lincoln School of Teachers College, the laboratory schools of the Ohio State University, and most of the schools in the group of thirty coöperating in the experiment supervised by the Progressive Education Association are schools in which the cost is high.

In recent months the national government has undertaken extensive educational projects, and has been inclined to delegate responsibility for these new educational projects to the social worker rather than to the schoolteacher. Presumably this implies that

the teacher has not done everything that is expected of him. It is not clear that this policy recognizes two other pertinent facts. First, the social worker, in contrast with the schoolteacher, is an enormously expensive person. He works with small groups and frequently on case studies. Second, the schoolteacher is probably the most effective worker available for the newer tasks, if given a little guidance and the proper conditions for work. It is safe to predict that, in the end, if the new tasks are to be done at all, the personnel must be drawn heavily from the classrooms of the nation.

We may now turn to three questions: First, is this matter of integrating the individual a function which the school should undertake? Second, can society afford to pay for it? Third, what are some hopeful ways of going about it?

As regards the first question, there is nothing that the schools can do but accept a part of the responsibility if the continued improvement, perhaps the very existence, of our institutions is to be assured. A preliminary study of the CCC camps shows not only an astonishingly low degree of school achievement but a deep antipathy on the part of many of the men for any and all things pertaining to schools. So widespread is this resentment that the general adviser of one group of camps has avidly accepted the suggestion that all terminology suggesting school (for example "teacher," "lesson," "classroom," and the like) be kept out of the vocabulary when dealing with the

enrollee. Excellent as our schools are, we must admit failure with far too large a percentage of the students in efforts to provide adequate guidance and curricular materials that meet the needs of certain groups of students who pass through the school.

Attention has recently been attracted by the statements[1] of Warden Lewis E. Lawes of Sing Sing Prison, that "there is a missing link between education and character which our public schools have not been able to discover." He refers to the steadily decreasing average age of criminals in the death house at Sing Sing and to the steadily increasing average amount of schooling of prisoners. "The educational program," he writes, "has done nothing — I say this advisedly — nothing to mold the character of our people." He adds: "The faults of education become the problems of penology. The failures of our schools and general educational methods are filling our juvenile homes, our reformatories, and prisons."

Against the foregoing statement must be placed recent investigations which show that a majority of criminals have never attended school regularly and that the social agencies of the communities in which the young criminals live often take no steps to guide them in non-school hours. . . .

Regardless, however, of the accuracy of such indictments as that registered by Warden Lawes, the constructive suggestions made by him are worthy of note. As a cure for the alleged failure of the schools in character development, Mr. Lawes does not suggest the abolition

[1] Lewis E. Lawes, "A Challenge to the School." *Good Housekeeping*, Vol. 95, pages 30–31, 130, 132; September, 1932. "The Challenge to the School," *Proceedings of the National Education Association*, Vol. 70 (1932), pages 57–60.

or curtailment of the public school system. Recognizing the success with which the schools have created a literate nation, he calls them to a new and even more difficult task. He advocates more adequate attention to none-bookish education for those whose abilities do not lie along literary lines; "the scope of the school must be widened"; "a specially trained personnel of the school" must be added to handle misfits on an individual, personal basis; and other adjustments which will make the schools more effective agencies in the prevention of crime and the development of character. Such services, he concludes, "may require larger instead of restricted appropriations" as well as a fundamental change in viewpoint on the part of some teachers and school administrators. On such a program, practically all teachers and citizens can agree.[1]

The question, "Can society afford to provide the necessary technical service to meet the personality needs of children?" is easily answered. The number of persons afflicted with mental disorders is alarmingly great. A few years ago Ogburn showed for New York State and Massachusetts that of the boys and girls of high school age about one in twenty would actually be in an insane asylum sometime during the course of his life. The American Bar Association estimates our nation's crime bill at thirteen billion dollars a year. It seems that if we were to cut 4 per cent of our annual crime bill we could add 20 per cent to our present annual budget for public schools. It is practically impossible to determine

[1] *Evaluating the Public Schools,* pages 32, 34. Washington: National Education Association, 1934.

what it actually costs society to maintain its prisons or its institutions for mental disorders, because the vast sums necessary to build the institutions and the interest on this investment are usually not considered. The cost of maintaining a boy in a CCC camp, in which plant costs are practically negligible, is a sum between $1100 and $1200 a year. In the end it may not be possible for society to pay the bill for crime, dependency, mental disorders, and unemployment; but we can be sure the total cost will be far less if a very generous sum is spent in the preventive work which schools can do.

Finally, how shall we go about this task of assuming responsibility for building personality? There are several solutions that may be worth consideration. The first one is to decrease the teaching load and to add well-trained and well-paid technical workers to the staff of every school of considerable size. In these days when we are looking for work projects for white-collar people, it is not an unreasonable suggestion that some people with scientific training shall be apprenticed to teachers to do the tasks for which there is not now the time or energy. That such technical assistance could be provided by graduate students who are having difficulty in finding employment can scarcely be denied.

The second suggestion is the wider use of extra-curricular activities. For the school that maintains an obsolete curriculum this may be the practical solution during this transition period. It must be

pointed out, however, that an extracurricular activity on top of a heavy teaching load creates a hectic situation for both teachers and pupils, one in which the adjustment of personality is almost certain to go by the board.

The third suggestion concerns itself with the creation of a sound curriculum for pupils who are unhappy in the schools as they are, and who are troubled and humiliated by the fact that they cannot keep step with their more able classmates. It is reasonably clear that most of the boys in the CCC camps are drawn from this group, and this fact may explain the antipathy that develops when essential self-expression cannot be found in achievement that appears worth while. Developing a sound curriculum is probably the sensible way to go about this task, but again the most expensive. To create a curriculum providing materials that the slow-learning pupils can utilize with profit and satisfaction is a long, tedious, and expensive road. It requires the testing of a considerable amount of instructional materials that must be discarded when they are not found to be useful. Trained statistical workers are needed; and, finally, school people with vision and insight must interpret the data, construct the program, and write and test the materials.

A fourth suggestion is to provide psychiatric service for schools. This proposal would not be practical immediately, for there are not enough people with sound training in psychiatry to supply the schools.

Moreover, the applications of the suggestions of the psychiatrist would need to be made by the classroom teachers, and a little psychiatry is probably a dangerous thing. Concerning this suggestion Ogburn says: "At best psychiatry can only be mildly helpful. In most cases the problem of psychiatry is really a problem of social instinct, a problem of social life, I should say, rather than a problem of medicine. I do not think, therefore, that very much is to be expected from the use of the health office in developing personality."

Fifth, some writers suggest the arts and the general shop as sublimating agencies. This proposal is really subsidiary to the one of making the work of the schools more and more genuinely creative. Undoubtedly the school will move in this direction and may achieve some measure of success.

The last suggestion is that the social sciences as the core of the curriculum shall assume responsibility. But the social sciences, based on evidence and concerned merely with the interpretation of facts, may prove to be altogether futile in this one important respect. The teaching of social science from the scientific point of view may miss the mark entirely as regards the integration of personality. Youth is idealistic and requires a cause, a purpose, or a higher goal to which it may devote its loyalty, its zeal, and its energy. In the earlier days religion provided this purpose. Ogburn says, "Religion was wonderful for the person with paranoiac tendencies. The demen-

tia præcox type often found a very satisfactory adjustment for his loneliness in religion." We can find tragedy and hope in the high proportion of young people who develop mental disorders when they realize clearly the gap that exists between realities and ideals. It probably points to a great universal fact, that there are always those who care! To provide for the needs of youth we may need something more than a social science that is based on fact. Quoting Ogburn again, "I have seen young people with such a scientific training in the social sciences come out with a cynicism, a detachment, a sophistication, with a lack of purpose that approaches almost to the abnormal." Is there an observing teacher in any large university who has not observed a considerable number of students who conform to the preceding description? It is not implied that the teaching of the social studies shall be emotionalized. On the contrary, it is merely suggested that if history (or, similarly, any other social study) is taught, in the only way that it can be taught and still remain history, the school will not be touching in any vital way the basic problem of this chapter — namely, the education of the emotions, and the adjustment of the individual's personality, which involves the proper education of the emotions. The solution will involve a sensible program of *educational guidance* (not merely information about vocations), in which most of the teachers of the individual pupil will have a part. Such a program must inevitably come to depend upon more

adequate records, records that travel, if not ahead, at least abreast of, the pupil. The administrator faces the very practical problem of how to design a system of records that will be really useful in guidance, and surely the teachers need to learn how to use a continuous record that includes not only school marks but also scores on standardized tests, and anecdotes of a behavior journal such as has been suggested by Olson and recently discussed by Randall.[1] Perhaps no part of the curriculum in a typical school is in greater need of constructive planning than the field of educational guidance.

In conclusion, it should be repeated that the home and the church have shifted some of their functions to the school.

Schoolteaching cannot be the simple thing it once was. When it begins to deal with the engineering of the ends of life, it takes on the highest type of function conceivable. From this point of view, teaching becomes a service that requires the broadest and deepest kind of cultural background. In engineering a social activity, the teacher needs a broad acquaintance with the experience of the race as revealed through history, anthropology, sociology, and other sciences. He must see the child through the eyes of the most advanced research in psychology and biology. He must be intelligent in terms of the economic order, past, present, and developing, as well as in the whole field of social processes by which a society lives. It is a tremendous challenge to the profes-

[1] J. A. Randall, "The Anecdotal Behavior Journal," *Progressive Education,* Vol. XIII (January, 1936), pages 21–26.

sion of education as well as a challenge to the parent and the lay public in general. The parent must be more conscious and more appreciative of the new functions being delegated to the school to the end of seeing his own responsibilities in the new order more clearly. The profession of education must likewise be more conscious and more appreciative of its new responsibilities to the end of becoming better prepared to meet them.[1]

The school can and must assume some of the responsibility for the integration of the personality of the child. How this is to be accomplished constitutes the very difficult problem just ahead of us.

ISSUES SUGGESTED FOR GROUP DISCUSSION

1. The nature and scope of the problem of providing an education for the "whole child" is suggested by "The Children's Charter" formulated by President Hoover's White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.

[1] *Character Education,* pages 323–324. *Tenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence.* Washington: National Education Association, 1932.

## The Children's Charter

1. For every child spiritual and moral training to help him to stand firm under the pressure of life.

2. For every child understanding and the guarding of his personality as his most precious right.

3. For every child a home and that love and security which a home provides; and for that child who must receive foster care, the nearest substitute for his own home.

4. For every child full preparation for his birth, his mother receiving prenatal, natal, and postnatal care; and the establishment of such protective measures as will make childbearing safer.

5. For every child protection from birth through adolescence, including: periodical health examinations and, where needed, care of specialists and hospital treatment; regular dental examination and care of the teeth; protective and preventive measures against communicable diseases; the insuring of pure food, pure milk, and pure water.

6. For every child from birth through adolescence, promotion of health, including health instruction and a health program, wholesome physical and mental recreation, with teachers and leaders adequately trained.

7. For every child a dwelling place, safe, sanitary, and wholesome, with reasonable provisions for privacy, free from conditions which tend to thwart his development; and a home environment harmonious and enriching.

8. For every child a school which is safe from hazards, sanitary, properly equipped, lighted, and ventilated. For younger children nursery schools and kindergartens to supplement home care.

9. For every child a community which recognizes and plans for his needs, protects him against physical dangers, moral hazards, and disease; provides him with safe and wholesome places for play and recreation; and makes provision for his cultural and social needs.

10. For every child an education which, through the discovery and development of his individual abilities, prepares him for life; and through training and vocational guidance prepares him for a living which will yield him the maximum of satisfaction.

11. For every child such teaching and training as will prepare him for successful parenthood, homemaking, and the rights of citizenship; and, for parents, supplementary training to fit them to deal wisely with the problems of parenthood.

12. For every child education for safety and protection against accidents to which modern conditions subject him — those to which he is directly exposed and those which, through loss or maiming of his parents, affect him indirectly.

13. For every child who is blind, deaf, crippled, or otherwise physically handicapped, and for the child who is mentally handicapped, such measures as will early discover and diagnose his handicap, provide care and treatment, and so train him that he may become an asset to society rather than a liability. Expenses of these services should be borne publicly where they cannot be privately met.

14. For every child who is in conflict with society the right to be dealt with intelligently as society's charge, not society's outcast; with the home, the school, the church, the court, and the institution, when needed, shaped to return him whenever possible to the normal stream of life.

15. For every child the right to grow up in a family

with an adequate standard of living and the security of a stable income as the surest safeguard against social handicaps.

16. For every child protection against labor that stunts growth, either physical or mental, that limits education, that deprives children of the right of comradeship, of play, and of joy.

17. For every rural child as satisfactory schooling and health services as for the city child, and an extension to rural families of social, recreational, and cultural facilities.

18. To supplement the home and the school in the training of youth, and to return to them those interests of which modern life tends to cheat children, every stimulation and encouragement should be given to the extension and development of the voluntary youth organizations.

19. To make everywhere available these minimum protections of the health and welfare of children, there should be a district, county, or community organization for health, education, and welfare, with full-time officials, coördinating with a state-wide program which will be responsive to a nation-wide service of general information, statistics, and scientific research. This should include: (*a*) Trained, full-time public health officials, with public health nurses, sanitary inspection, and laboratory workers; (*b*) Available hospital beds; (*c*) Full-time public welfare service for the relief, aid, and guidance of children in special need due to poverty, misfortune, or behavior difficulties, and for the protection of children from abuse, neglect, exploitation, or moral hazard.

For EVERY child these rights regardless of race, or color, or situation, wherever he may live under the protection of the American flag.

(*a*) Check with the letter "S" those pledges to children which are primarily the responsibility of the school, with the letter "H" those which are primarily the responsibility of the home, and with the letter "C" those that are the chief concern of the church.

(*b*) Which of the pledges are most commonly neglected in your community? Why?

(*c*) Which of the pledges to children seem impossible for immediate attainment in your community?

2. To what extent is there a program for educational guidance in your school? What are its main features? If possible, determine its cost.
3. If feasible, your discussion group will find it interesting to appoint a small committee to attempt to find the actual cost per year for maintaining a man in prison in your state.
4. Present a brief report of the best program that you can find in any school dealing with the integration of personality.
5. Suggest a method of appraisal of the effectiveness of the religious instruction in your community.
6. The following quotations from brilliant and effective teachers in progressive schools may not be typical of teachers, but one hears parallels to some of the statements in an increasing degree. Examine each statement and mark it with an "A" if you think it represents what you believe to be a position that is essentially valid; mark the statement with an "R" if you have reservations.

(*a*) Miss Allen: I resent the pressure brought to bear on me to teach in the Sunday school. I carry the load of integrating the personalities of a whole roomful of children, eight hours a day

for five days a week. I have to plan my work and take care of my clothes on Saturday. I should think that even a teacher might be entitled to even a little relaxation on Sunday. But no, I have to teach a class or the church people will make it uncomfortable for me by their "coolness." I would like to share the responsibility for character education, but I think it unfair to give it all to me. Don't the church people know that we are on exactly the same job? Isn't it a fact that the experts in religious education have neglected revision of the curriculum — a difficult and technical task — to the point where the Sunday school is a full decade, at least, behind the curriculum and method in character education, as one finds it in a good day school?

(*b*) Miss Baten: Investigations show that two out of three pupils are interested in the activities of the church when they enter high school, but only one out of three by the time they enter college. I believe that young people lose their zest because the church is interested in promotion, machinery, and money instead of having as its primary concern religious education and human beings.

(*c*) Miss Kalder: I believe the church lost ground in the depression when it emphasized broad abstractions, general social problems, world situations, instead of getting down to the very human and concrete task of helping solve the personal problems of its own members in these frightful years.

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# *Chapter Five*

## The Increasing Complexity and Strain of Modern Life to Which the Individual Must Adjust

THE deserting husband takes to the road to escape the responsibility of supporting his wife and children. He drifts from one temporary job to another and finally enters the ranks of the homeless men. The son of a Polish immigrant lives in the crowded slums of a great industrial center. He plays truant from school to join in the pranks of his alley playmates. They throw stones at factory windows and are brought into the juvenile court — well on their way to a life of crime. The dissatisfied girl from a small town seeks the excitement and adventure of life in the metropolis. Her hopes for a dramatic career receive no encouragement from the theatrical producers. The dreariness of the hall bedroom intensifies her discouragement and she seeks a way out of her loneliness through suicide. These are all examples of personal disorganization of individuals unable to make an adequate adjustment to the world in which they live.[1]

It is a commonplace fact that life now is much more complex than it was even a generation ago. One consequence of this increasing complexity has been a gradual modification of the customs of society. To cite one example, consider what the automobile, the motion picture, and electricity have done to the

[1] M. A. Elliott and Others, *Our Dynamic Society*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1935. Reprinted by special permission.

night life of the country, and then note how these same factors have modified the sleeping habits of people. Some churches are finding it difficult to maintain Sunday school classes for young people of high school and later years at the traditional hour of nine-thirty on Sunday morning. As a concession to the new sleeping habits of young people many churches are now concentrating their program for youth in the early evening. Space is not available to mention many other changes in social habits which are suffusing our common life.

Any change in the patterns of society increases the conflicts of life. One common conflict area is found in the relationship between the younger and older generations. The older generation yields reluctantly, if at all, to the pressure of inevitable change. The younger generation accepts change as a part of its heritage. Hence clashes of transition are usually present and increase the strain on the participants in the conflict.

Not only new sources of conflict but the increased numbers of wants and wishes have made greater demands on the adjustment of the individual. The modern man has desires for clothes, food, travel, shelter, culture, education, etc., which his ancestors never experienced. The wish life of the individual is therefore bombarded with greater intensity and variety of stimuli than man has ever known.

Another source of added strain on the modern man and woman is the growing number of mechani-

cal and physical stimuli. Our machine age makes a great noise. The roar of traffic, the drone of the airplane, the blare of the radio, the ring of the telephone, the clatter of the typewriter, the bustle of sheer proximity combine to surround us with an environment of noise which our ancestors never knew in the silence of their rural life. And there is good scientific evidence to demonstrate that the human organism pays a heavy tribute of energy to the great and ever-present tyrant of noise. Thus another level of vitality is drawn off from man's reserve of nervous energy.

Modern society has done something to man's idea of himself which increases the strain of adjustment. The competitive struggle for security and prestige has intensified modern life. In the rural society of a generation ago, when each man owned his own farm and was lord of his household, he had a relatively independent self-respecting and secure status in his community. He may not have had electric lights in his house and he may not have owned an automobile, but he was sure of his food and shelter and he was known by name and not by number. Today fewer people have such security and fewer people have as much prestige. The competitive struggle is more bitter because there are relatively fewer chances for a person to gain a foothold. In spite of occasional success the rewards today are more impersonal and unsuitable. The fickleness of Mother Nature's weather has always induced an attitude of depend-

ence on the part of the man who works the soil, but no dependence on nature can approach the abject helplessness which the modern white-collar or industrial worker feels in the presence of the caprice and fluctuations of economic instability. Furthermore, when an individual worker can be pushed aside by a machine, and when he is only a cog in a vast commercial organization, he doesn't gain in dignity or in a sense of personal worth.

These various factors we have been discussing have increased many of our social and personal problems. Comparable statistics on the incidence of crime and insanity from generation to generation are not available. But crime is perhaps more serious today, if not more frequent, than ever before. Insanity is certainly just as prevalent as it ever was, and some writers cite data intended to prove that it is increasing. The divorce rate has increased to an alarming extent, and few people would contradict the statement that a sense of personal insecurity is probably more widespread than ever before.

The intricacy of shifting social habits has blurred the line between right and wrong. And where the line is clearly drawn the social conscience has not kept pace with the realities of our complex life. Some forms of thievery are universally taboo. The Dillingers, criminals on a grand scale, and the petty thief on a small scale are automatically considered social enemies. But the multifarious and subtle forms of polite thievery which exist in our political

and commercial life have not yet aroused an equally emphatic conscience.

### EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

The question of personal and social ethics is no longer a simple matter. Character education and good citizenship are not merely a matter of the inculcation of generally accepted virtues, but a problem of defining what those virtues mean in our complex social and economic life. It is conceivable that the old swashbuckling militant form of patriotism of the nation's adolescence was not only justifiable but necessary for a certain stage of our national development, but it is equally conceivable that this same type of patriotism would be the most unpatriotic type of behavior today. At least we are justified in asserting that what true patriotism is, is not the simple problem today which it seemed to be a hundred years ago, or even twenty years ago.

Human nature possesses an admirable capacity for adjusting to changing circumstances, but even human nature has its limits of flexibility and endurance. It is becoming more and more clear that if our civilization increases in strain and complexity there must be some effort made to enable people to withstand greater punishment of life. Techniques of constructive diversion, recreation, renewal, facing reality, relaxation, integration of purposes, reduction of conflicts, must be developed and transmitted through our educational system. All of this argu-

ment therefore points to the necessity for a type of character education which will enable people to develop a realistic and creative ethic for modern life, and for a type of mental-hygiene program which will enable people to live on a higher level of personal vitality and adjustment. Our life of increasing complexity and strain is making a great demand on the individual; the school is forced to aid the individual to meet this greater challenge of modern existence.

The schools should in these tense times protect youth against excessive pessimism. We are much too close to the effects of the depression to have a true perspective. It may be that this very age is the period of great opportunities for self-expression. For example, there is no reason that anyone should sit down discouraged and weep sentimental tears over the fact that frontier lands are no longer available for discovery. All that a brilliant boy needs to do today is to go to a chemistry laboratory, devise ways and means of doubling the production of an acre, and he will have discovered an acre of ground in a far more comfortable way than his grandfather ever did by the wearying and dangerous trek across the desert plains. The man who had the idea of shipping beer in cans instead of in bottles probably does not need to worry about his future economic security. Instead of being limited to the opportunities of a small community, the young man or woman nowadays has vocational information over a wide range of territory from which occasionally opportunities emerge. Youth should

always keep in mind the fact that the individual person is looking for only one opportunity. The individual youth of merit need not lie awake at night and worry about his own welfare. It is only when we consider the social point of view and concern ourselves with *all* youth that we strike our problems.

### ISSUES SUGGESTED FOR GROUP DISCUSSION

1. Some writers call Americans a "neurotic" people. Do you think this statement is justified?
2. What in your judgment is a good definition of mental hygiene?
3. What should a sound program of mental hygiene in the schools involve?
4. How do you account for the fact that the divorce rate has increased in recent years?
5. How do you account for the fact that the suicide rate among men of wealth is very high?
6. How do you account for the fact that the rates for practically every form of human breakdown, such as insanity, crime, nervousness, suicide, etc., are lower in the rural areas than in the urban areas?
7. What suggestions would you propose for reducing the strain of modern life?

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# *Chapter Six*

## The Shifting Character of the Population

To know a nation one must know its people. For example, to know the United States one must know three important changes now going forward in the population of this country. The first of these is the change in the relative number of young and older people, the second is a change in the geographical distribution of the people, and the third relates to changes in the type of people who make up the population.

The rate of increase of the population has been falling off considerably since the decade 1850-1860. In this decade the population increased 36 per cent. In 1890-1900 the increase was 21 per cent, and in the decade 1920-1930 the increase was 16 per cent. It is estimated that if the present deceleration continues, the growth of the population will practically cease at about the figure of 150,000,000 people in the year 1960. This decline in the rate of growth and an increase in the longevity of the population is already producing a significant redistribution of the population at various age levels. For example, the number of children is becoming fewer. In 1880, 13.8 per cent of the population was under five years of age, and in 1900, 12.1 per cent was under five years, while for 1920 and 1930 the figures were 10.9 and 9.3 respectively. According to the *Research Bulletin of*

*the National Education Association* for November, 1934 (page 249): "In 1930 there were fewer children under five years of age than in the five-to-nine-year group. This condition did not exist in any census report prior to 1930." It appears that information to be used in birth control is seeping down to labor groups.

In the second place, let us consider a few facts concerning the geographical distribution of the population. In 1900 about 60 per cent of the total population lived in rural communities of less than 2500 persons, while in 1930 the proportion was 44 per cent. In the past few years — i.e., since 1933 — there has been a migration from the city back to the farm; but the fact remains that the mass of the population is becoming more and more related to large metropolitan areas. It has been estimated that about 80 per cent of the population of the United States live within an hour of cities of 50,000 or more inhabitants. Some writers have predicted that the development of cheap electric power will eventually break up the city and revive the small town. Even if this development should occur, our society would still be essentially metropolitan in character — certainly different from the semi-isolation of the agrarian society of past generations.

In the third place, attention should be called to the shifting character of the type of people composing the population. The recent economic depression has greatly affected the migration of people to and

from the United States. Within late years the United States has adopted a program for the restriction of immigration. This new immigration policy and the depression have so effectively reduced the flow of new peoples entering the country that since 1931 more persons of foreign birth have been leaving the United States than have entered.

And finally, an ominous trend is appearing in the decreasing fertility of the upper classes and the lack of a corresponding decrease in the fertility of the lower classes. There is abundant evidence assembled by experts in the study of population trends that in recent years the families in the lower end of the economic and social scale are reproducing themselves much more rapidly than families at the upper end of the scale. For example, it is estimated that during 1935 half of the babies born in the state of Michigan were born in families which were on relief. This argument should not be interpreted to mean that dependent persons, or families in the lower economic classes, are necessarily of poor stock. Many people of great value have been forced, through no fault of their own, during the depression and at other times to seek public aid for their maintenance. But the fact remains that there tends to be a general relationship between levels of intelligence and occupational status which is partly due to inherited as well as to environmental factors. Even if the causes for these differences in occupational status were purely environmental, it would still be a matter for concern

that so many children are being born into families which offer such meager, if not at times vitiating, opportunities, while so few children are born into families which might offer such valuable advantages. If the importance of diet for little children which is now being stressed by expert nutritionists is true, one wonders what the effect of the diet permitted to families on relief will be on the younger generation which is now growing up under such impoverished circumstances.

### EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

No one who approaches these four tendencies with a realistic attitude can fail to be impressed with their significance. Prophecy is difficult in these days of rapid and unpredictable change. The break-up of the city, if it occurs, and a renewed sense of economic security may check the decline in the birth rate. The extension of the knowledge and facilities of birth control to the poorer classes may check the growing discrepancy between the numbers in the upper and lower strata of society.

But certain implications are obvious. At the level of the elementary school the building program will consist of replacements and maintenance and not of expansion. And much of the expenditure of funds formerly devoted to buildings can be diverted to the enrichment of the curriculum and the improvement of instruction. The greater number of people at the middle and late years of life will form the basis for a

demand and a need for an extended program of adult education. The dwindling number of young people and the increase in the proportion of older people will certainly induce a conservative mood in the future society quite different from the youthful society of pioneer America. And from an economic standpoint the declining birth rate will mean that the home or domestic market will soon become so stabilized that, lacking foreign markets and an increase in the purchasing power of the consumer, industrial expansion will reach a deadlock.

There must be an intensive program for improving family life and maintaining the quality of the population. People in the lower classes should have access to methods and information on birth control so that their children will not have too many competitors for the limited supply of advantages which the poor home has to offer. People in the upper classes should be encouraged to have larger families. The competitive struggle among the members of the upper classes for the higher standard of living, combined with the strong streak of individualism which has been creeping over the younger generation, must be mitigated. Psychological rewards of family life need to be played up in the ideals of the younger generation. Furthermore, more women who are now inclined to enter the various occupations should be encouraged to share their working interests with the establishment of a home. The most striking need for this change may be found in the teaching

profession itself. As a class there is probably no more desirable group of women in America than the female members of the teaching profession. From the standpoint of future generations probably nothing is so socially and biologically deteriorating as the stupid and traditional idea that married women should not be allowed to teach. On the contrary, women should be allowed to marry and retain their positions on a part-time basis, at least for the sake of later generations if not for the present one. It is very doubtful whether or not society can long permit thousands of its finest womanhood to be diverted into the single life of teaching without doing serious injury to the biological stock of the race.

Finally, training for effective family life should saturate the curriculum of the secondary school. Such training should certainly spread over several courses and would in part be a function of the entire educational process. Biology, hygiene, physical education, literature, history, home economics, and the social studies could all be listed in the pursuit of such an objective. Part of this function could be provided in a more generous guidance program for young men and young women in social and leisure-time relations. As one specific suggestion, every girl in the secondary school might have preparental education by assisting in the kindergarten or nursery school under skilled supervision. The school might set up a program of parental education designed to improve family life.

This discussion about the family may seem to the casual reader to be a far-fetched implication of the trends of modern populations; but it is clear that if the race is to survive and progress it must generously reproduce itself on an approved level, and both from the standpoint of environment and heredity the problem of racial improvement becomes practically a problem of the improvement of family life. For this task the school has an important obligation.

### ISSUES SUGGESTED FOR GROUP DISCUSSION

1. Go to any dealer in clothing or shoes in your community who has been in business over a large number of years. Ask him if he has made any difference in the purchase of supplies for various age levels.
2. The county health officer should possess valuable data on the birth rate, death rate, and age at death of the local population.
3. Do you think there is any large amount of truth in the statement that one reason why the small town is so conservative is the fact that it is composed largely of old people?

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# *Chapter Seven*

## The Struggle for International Coöperation

FOR weal or for woe, the different tribal divisions of the human race have been growing closer and closer together. First the individual, then the family, then the clan, next the state, and now the nation seem to have been the course of social development. In the last generation the great advances in transportation and communication have made every nation a neighbor, in proximity if not in spirit. This fact is important, both politically and economically.

From an economic standpoint specialization of function and services among the nations of the world has progressed so rapidly that no nation can live within itself. Some countries produce things which other countries cannot produce. The exchange of these special materials and services constitutes the basis of the interdependence of modern economic life. America does not produce coffee, but she makes automobiles. Brazil grows coffee, but assembles very few automobiles. So when America buys coffee from Brazil, Brazil can use American dollars to buy automobiles from America. This simple example establishes the relationship that exists between the nations of the world. When this

interchange of goods is unimpeded, economic life reaches a high level; when, however, this reciprocal flow is thwarted, tremendous economic adjustments are necessary.

From a political standpoint international relations are just as intimate. Travel among the peoples of the world is increasing. Cultural relations are becoming more interdependent. World news is occupying more space in our newspapers and periodicals. It is inevitable, therefore, that the internationalism of cultural, personal, and commercial affairs should lead to a closer relationship in political affairs. The League of Nations, the World Court, and the Pact of Paris are all evidences of this trend. It is one of the tragic aspects of modern life that the struggle for international economic and political order is meeting with such meager success.

First let us view the economic situation. The U.S.S.R., in spite of the theoretical internationalism inherent in Communism, has recently inaugurated extensive plans to make that nation independent of the rest of the world. The essence of the fanatical patriotism of Hitler and Mussolini is to make Germany and Italy superior to extranational sources of raw materials. Even Great Britain, for decades the exponent of the policy of free trade, has since 1931 been building tariff walls around the British Isles and around the British Commonwealth of Nations. The United States has been exemplifying the same

trend. Other nations find it difficult to sell goods in this country.

These barriers have given rise to a desperate attempt to establish what the Germans call *Autarchy;* i.e., economic self-sufficiency. Europe is manufacturing more of its automobiles and is raising more of its wheat. The industrial chemists are developing substitutes for raw materials. In America, where we possess an abundance of raw materials and where our manufacturing skill can supply masses of fabricated goods, we have to guard against overproduction. Farmers no longer export a large quantity of their foodstuffs to the rest of the world. They are therefore unable to purchase the product of the manufacturer. The manufacturer, in turn, cannot hire as many laborers, who, in turn, are thrown out of work and are unable to buy foodstuffs from the farmers; and thus the vicious circle is completed.

Second, let us look at the political situation. The World War left a heritage of international insecurity. Germany was crippled and burdened by the impositions of the Treaty of Versailles. The Austro-Hungarian Empire was dismembered. Many smaller states were created. Within the last five years three nations of the world have been clamoring ambitiously for greater recognition. Germany demands the return of her colonies and a restoration of her former prestige. Italy, grown powerful and restless under the rule of Mussolini, seeks new territory for her dreams of empire. Japan, growing rapidly in

population and possessing great reserves of vitality, is aspiring to control the Asiatic coast line from Singapore to the Bering Straits. In the meantime France and Great Britain are holding desperately to the domain they already rule. The newly founded countries of Central Europe are jealously guarding their new-found freedom, and Russia is driving ahead her domestic development in order to stand off a hostile capitalistic world. As a consequence, never before in the history of the world have there been such enormous preparations for war. The great World War, instead of being a "war to end war," has apparently been the incubator which is hatching the most colossal burdens of armaments ever known in the history of man. Even the United States is not immune to this craze. The appropriations of Congress for the Army and Navy in their 1936 session have been larger than at any other time in the history of this country. When one contemplates the probable effect of the new machinery of war — the new gases, the tanks, and the mechanically controlled airplanes — it would seem to an impartial observer from some other planet that the world was about to commit suicide.

In the presence of this terrifying international insecurity what grounds are there for hope? There are several factors which lend some basis for optimism in the face of this impending strife. First, in spite of its limitations and its partial failures the League of Nations is forming the groundwork for an

ultimate if not an immediate form of international coöperation. Second, the nations of the world are near economic exhaustion. There is serious doubt as to whether or not a war could be successfully financed. Certainly a long war would lead to economic collapse. In the third place, every expert observer reports an intense war weariness among the masses of the people both in Europe and in the United States. This economic exhaustion and the war weariness of the masses are the great barriers in the path of our ambitious militaristic dictators. Fourth, the domestic stability of Japan, Germany, and Italy is sufficiently uncertain to suggest the possibility that the internal status of any one of these nations might change to such an extent as greatly to ease the international tension.

### EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

The educators of America must educate for peace in a world of strife, for sanity in a world of madness. Our geographical isolation and our relative freedom from the bitterness of Old World animosities give us a unique advantage in bringing about neighborliness among the nations of the world. We should face the situation realistically. Our younger generation should not be betrayed. They should be given in their school work the unvarnished and complete facts about war, its causes and consequences. The usual war propaganda should be thoroughly debunked and analyzed. There should be no more glory, no more

selfishness masking under the guise of patriotism, no more false sense of honor parading about with an infantile swagger. If war must come, let it be an honest war with all the trappings divested, with the real causes announced and the real objectives clearly defined. If there must be war, let the young generation be thoroughly informed so that if they choose the cause of strife, as it is their right in a democracy to do, then they can pay the fiddler in the full knowledge of the consequences of their decision. The educators of America should not betray the younger generation, for ultimately the younger generation must pay for the ravages of war with their bodies and their substance.

Finally, the educators of America need to keep faith with the ideal of international coöperation and neighborliness. As one member of the League of Nations secretariat said recently in a conversation with one of the authors, "For the present the outlook for peace is very dismal, but for the future the outlook is bright, for the nations of the world must cooperate and live together in peace although more blood may have to be spilled before that lesson is learned. Here in Geneva we sometimes are discouraged at the history of the League since the war, but we know that we are laying the foundations for an ultimate society of nations. Progress is always irregular and requires a long and strenuous struggle."

### ISSUES SUGGESTED FOR GROUP DISCUSSION

1. Prepare a report of Mr. Soule's article in *Harper's Magazine* and present it to the class.
2. What, in your opinion, should be the attitude and policy of the United States with regard to the growing tendency toward autarchy among the nations of the world?

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# *Chapter Eight*

## The Clash of World Political Ideas with Its Implied Threat to American Democracy

WHEN one is separated by three thousand miles of water and several hundred miles of land from the scene of a desperate struggle, it is difficult to feel its intensity or to ascribe any validity to its reality. It therefore means very little to the average American, not to mention the average Middle Westerner of this country, that a great test of the political ideals of democracy is now taking place in Europe and Asia. Many of the nations emerging from the World War underwent profound political and economic changes. Since the war these changes have continued. Italy and Germany are now Fascist. The U.S.S.R., while not thoroughly Communistic, is more secure in her experiment than ever before in her short seventeen years of existence. Even Spain, a neutral in the World War, has felt the pressure of world influences. In the meantime France, just now, is wobbling in her effort to preserve her republican form of government; and even democratic England has had to resort to a coalition in order to work effectively in these uncertain days.

Let us look at the claims of the theories which challenge democracy. The Communist will tell you

that, as a matter of fact, he is even more of a democrat than the democrat himself. He insists, however, that democracy is a farce because political control is based on economic power, and though the average man may have the ballot he doesn't have the money, and money ultimately controls the ballot. Sometimes money actually buys the vote outright, but more frequently money controls the legislative functions through its enormous invisible power over a servile press and a cowed populace. The interests of the common man (that is, anyone who works by hand or brain, such as a farmer, laborer, or white-collar and professional worker), says our Communist friend, are contrary to the interests of the much less numerous but much more powerful owner of the means of production. As long as the means whereby people survive are owned and controlled privately, there can be no real democracy. The common man must gain control of this vital power, and he can do so by putting it in the ownership of his government. This transfer of power might theoretically be accomplished by the ballot, but practically this method will not work, says the Communist. In the first place the masses of the people are not aware of their class interests and their class enemies, the owners of productive power. In the second place the owners of this economic power will not relinquish their control peacefully. On the contrary they will resort to violence in their frantic attempts to retain their status. Because of these two facts the Com-

munist says that the economic and political power must be violently seized by a small group of determined people who will dictate the policies of the country until the former owning class is dispossessed and the masses have shaken off the inertia of their old bourgeois capitalistic habits. After these new habits of life have been thoroughly established the dictatorship can be lifted, class lines will no longer exist, and then will arrive a state of true democracy in which both political and economic control are resident in the hands of the common man.

Fascism has nothing in common with democracy. The Fascist believes not only in an immediate dictatorship, as the Communist does, but his dictatorship will last forever. In the Fascist scheme there is no ultimate period when political power will be returned to the masses. The Fascist has a vast contempt for the political abilities of the common man. He is a realist. As a consequence all functions of society must come under what he calls the totalitarian state. Over the worker, the capitalist, the soldier, the school — everything — the state is supreme. The Fascist, however, does not destroy the institution of private property, as Communism does. It permits the capitalist to retain his ownership. For this reason someone has said that Fascism is a political device to establish and maintain capitalism by violence when the capitalist can no longer manipulate and control the political power of a democracy. The Fascist is an ardent believer in unity, efficiency, and

regimentation. He derides the corruption of representatives elected by popular vote. He pokes fun at the long-windedness and bungling processes of parliamentarianism and is contemptuous of the selfish demands of the individual citizen for the personal freedom of democracy. Like the Communist, the Fascist believes in violence to achieve his objective and to maintain his power. Unlike the Communist, he has little faith in the virtues of the common man and he proposes to dictate to him, now and forever. Some sophisticated reader, sympathetic and learned in the doctrines of Fascism and Communism, may insist that this statement is an oversimplification of these two great political and economic philosophies. But this brief exposition will provide the essential background for a discussion.

For present purposes we can range the U.S.S.R., Italy, and Germany on one side and France, the British Commonwealth, and the United States on the other side. The issue which this dichotomy suggests is not economic, but political. The U.S.S.R., Italy, and Germany have perhaps only one important characteristic in common; namely, that of dictatorship. In the U.S.S.R. it is a dictatorship of a small party of men dedicated to the objective of Communism, and in Italy and Germany it is a dictatorship of a small group of ardent patriots dedicated to the elevation of the state and the maintenance of the economic status quo.

These three nations constitute a diametric opposition to the spirit and method of American democracy. In fairness to the viewpoint of the dictators it may be conceded that the American government may not be administratively as efficient as a highly centralized corporation or the Italian state hierarchy. There is much evidence that the mass of people do not always know what is best for their welfare and that the process of education is almost disastrously slow in meeting the true needs of the common man. But even if the dictatorship has advantages over the democracy in the management of government in a complex society, democracy, on the other hand, has a tremendous advantage over dictatorship in facilitating the growth of personality. Dictatorship may be efficient, but it leads to the production of robots. Democracy may be inefficient, but it has the possibilities of producing human beings of social worth and independence.

With regard to the critics of democracy, however, Will Durant issues a warning:

> For let us remember that these are dreams that the critics of democracy oppose to our poor and ailing reality. By aristocracy they mean the virtues of aristocracy, not those faults of selfish and irresponsible rule for which history guillotined its pampered and powdered futilities; by a proletarian dictatorship they mean a vision of honest and statesmanlike shoeblacks governing a brotherhood of man in plenty and peace — not that tragic scene of terror, espionage, starvation, destitution, and intellectual serfdom which Russia was after

fifteen years of perfection unsullied with democracy; and by Fascism they mean the rotogravure Mussolini that clears swamp, sways multitudes, cleanses Naples, builds express highways for tourist autos, electrifies railroads, and captures the blue ribbon of the seas — not the Mussolini that gives castor oil to his critics, death to his opponents, banishment promotion to his aides, life-stifling commands to the press of Italy, and the promise of chaos to his country when he passes away. We must keep our eyes wide open when these dreamy counselors of perfection speak; for their own eyes are half closed, even as they undertake to lead us. We shall insist upon comparing realities with realities, and not realities with ideals; we shall refresh our memories and recall our history; and then we shall see which has the better record — these alien despotisms, or our own middling and all-too-human democracy. . . .

Let us be happy, then; that with all our official negligence and knavery, with all our parliamentary palaver and our insincere campaigns, with our history textbooks that win every battle and our diplomats that lose every peace, we, nevertheless, live under a responsible government which can be turned out peaceably at the polls; that we can change our rulers by counting noses, without murdering them in bed; that we may worship as we please, in a hundred different churches and faiths; that we may speak out from any rostrum our criticism of our governors, and void our isms upon the helpless air; that we may write as we like, tear down and reconstruct at great length, and explain to our public servants, under ten counts, precisely what they should do to save our hapless land.[1]

[1] *Saturday Evening Post,* September 15, 1934. Copyright 1934 by the Curtis Publishing Company. Reprinted by special permission of the publishers and the author.

In America we are set on the path of government for, by, and of the people; of government in the service of the common man and ultimately and ideally, at least, in the control of the common man; in a system dedicated to the scientific and democratic method of seeking out the facts, threshing out the issues in the full view of free discussion, and applying each new increment of knowledge for the common good with the consent of and by the collective aid of those who are the recipients of this application. . . . In the United States, at least, this is our faith; but it is on trial before the world and it is one of the major tasks of our educational system to see to it that this ideal is given a fair trial.

### EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

One implication for education is very clear. Educators must establish emphatically and soak into the thinking and feelings of the people the right to know the truth. An unswerving allegiance to the facts of our modern economic and political society must become a passion of society. If the control of the government ultimately resides in the realm of the people, then the people must be constantly schooled in seeking the facts, must have access to the facts in every situation, and must learn to make important decisions with regard to public policy in the light of those facts. It is true that facts and statistics may be misleading, but the correction for this error comes not from subterfuge and concealment but through more

facts and more inquiries. Nothing is too sacred to be dragged out into the open for discussion and examination when it touches the public welfare. The public welfare is too important to be determined by anything less than the tested truth. If we accept this thesis of democracy, then we need to examine the extent to which this practice is now true.

One tragic element about modern democracy is that important issues are not discussed openly and the spirit of scientific and democratic inquiry is not followed in making knowledge available to the masses. Impartial sources of information are difficult to secure. Newspapers are for the most part notoriously colored in their services by the interests which support them. The research of the expert is stored away in some great library. The implication for education of this discussion is clear. School and public libraries should subscribe to a variety of books and periodicals representing widely divergent viewpoints in order that pupils, teachers, and the general reader may be able to compare and contrast presentations. No serious-minded reader can secure a complete view of international or domestic problems today when he is confined to the narrow range of reporting represented by the average periodical list offered by the average school and public library. The idea that certain magazines should be barred from public use because of their liberal or radical tendencies is a travesty on education in a democracy.

Furthermore, there should be free and unrestricted

discussion of so-called controversial issues. Both sides of disputed points should be deliberately presented. Fair play should cover all parts of a controversy, even if it is offensive to the audience. If something we fear is the truth, our fear will never save us from the consequences of our ignorance. If something we fear or hate is wrong, then free inquiry and the illumination of examination will reveal the error and dissipate the fear. Democracy can never lose by loyalty to the scientific pursuit of truth, but democracy is in serious danger if that right is ever qualified. In this day of tyranny abroad and milder manifestations of tyranny in our own country democracy must thoroughly establish the right to know the truth and insist that ways and means be constantly developed whereby that truth is open to the humblest citizen, uncolored by special interests or distorted by an alien spirit.

There are other important implications of this discussion for educational practice. The entire curriculum, teaching procedure, and administrative practice should carry responsibility for inculcating the American spirit and method of democracy. A school administration can be a dictatorship, with a Hitler, Mussolini, or Stalin at the helm, stifling student and teacher participation in coöperation and control, or it can be a creative democracy in which the superintendent shares his task of leadership with every person involved in the system. The teacher can be a tyrant, pounding her pupils into the submis-

sion of little "goose-stepping" Prussians, or she can lead them into higher levels of richer individuality. The curriculum can be imposed by fiat with no other justification than the inertia of tradition, or it can be modified on the basis of the vital needs and purposes of the pupils. And an educational method can develop such dependence of the pupil on routine requirements handed down from above that he becomes servile in mind and supine in personality. Or it can inculcate the habit of taking responsibility for the setting of tasks and the outlining of plans for their accomplishment, thereby leading the pupil into independence in adjusting to the common good.

These few examples suffice to indicate that there is an autocratic and a democratic way to conduct our schools. The democratic way is the American way. And educators cannot avoid its fundamental challenge.

ISSUES SUGGESTED FOR GROUP DISCUSSION

1. Some writers assert that the United States has more to fear from Fascism than from Communism. For evidence they cite the very low Communist vote in the elections of 1932. And they also point to our earlier experience with the Ku Klux Klan, and our recent experiences with certain vigilante groups who sometimes forcibly take over the police function of local government. Certain patriotic organizations in some localities, such as the American Legion and the D.A.R., are cited as favoring this type of direct action. What do you think of this argument? Do these various types of evidence apply to your community?

2. Other writers have been very critical of Mr. Hearst's interest in Herr Hitler. These commentators assert that Mr. Hearst, in spite of his protestation of Americanism, is really very un-American in wishing to impose a European stripe of Fascism on the United States. What is your own judgment of this point of view?
3. There has also been considerable speculation about the future of the movements started by Huey Long and Father Coughlin. Do these movements have any elements in them that resemble Fascism?
4. Interview several members of your community with the purpose of securing their opinion on the validity and value of our present form of government.
5. The United States recently sent a sharp note to Soviet Russia, demanding that she abide by her pledge of discouraging Communistic activities in this country. Have you been aware of any truly Communistic activities in your community? Do you believe that our government is justified in taking the stand indicated in the message to the U.S.S.R.?
6. The Michigan Educational Planning Commission consists of officials of certain influential state organizations, representing agriculture, business, commerce, education, industry, and labor, and certain organizations of women. The members are convinced that certain problems in public education arise from the confusion in the thinking of citizens regarding the goals of public education. The Commission has therefore prepared a statement concerning the goals of the educational system established and maintained by the state of Michigan to be used as the basis for the discussion and the appraisal of the program of public instruction. The proposed goals are reproduced in the following pages.

It is suggested (*a*) that students prepare brief notes to be used in an informal discussion of the questions accompanying the goals, and (*b*) that students compare the following list of goals which the American nation seems to have set for itself as stated by Beard in a report of the Commission on the Social Studies entitled "A Charter for the Social Sciences."

### The Goals of Public Education in Michigan [1]

In order to preserve and improve our democratic civilization, and to provide educational advantages for all, in accordance with the American principle of equality of opportunity, the state of Michigan has the right and the obligation to provide a system of public education at public expense. In such a system it should be the aim to seek to achieve the following nine goals at the appropriate levels of the public school system — elementary, secondary, and higher.

One. *To cultivate a deep regard for democracy and an intelligent appreciation of democratic institutions.*

This goal implies that effective democratic institutions constitute the best means for insuring justice and liberty; for maintaining the equality of political, social, and economic opportunities; for fostering growth and progress; and for furthering truth and honesty.

1. Should teachers be obligated to teach that democracy is, or can be made, the best type of government?

2. Does the school devote sufficient time to instruction in social, economic, and political problems of American life?

Two. *To develop those qualities of character which are of special significance in a democracy.*

This goal implies that citizens in a democracy must possess certain qualities of character that are not required in other forms of society. The preparation requires the development of a personality

[1] For the purpose of encouraging discussion, a brief explanatory statement and questions are included with each of the goals.

that will find expression in responsible self-direction, self-control, and self-appraisal in both individual and coöperative endeavor. This goal implies emphasis (*a*) on understanding and appreciation instead of blind obedience; (*b*) on fair and honest dealings instead of exploitation; (*c*) on investigation instead of thoughtless acceptance; (*d*) on open-mindedness instead of prejudice; and (*e*) on the promotion of the common good instead of selfish advancement of the individual.

1. Are there additional qualities of character that should be emphasized in training pupils for a democratic society? Why?
2. Is there a type of discipline that trains the child to direct himself rather than to be dependent on the autocracy of forced obedience?

THREE. *To develop the willingness and the ability to coöperate effectively in a democratic society.*

Democracy succeeds in proportion to the capacity of the people to solve their problems through voluntary self-directed coöperation. This goal requires a system of education, in organization, materials, and method of instruction, which will provide in the school an environment that will most nearly approximate an ideal democratic society. In such a school pupils and students may participate actively in the life of the school, molding it to their needs and aspirations and adjusting themselves to it.

1. Do children need special training in coöperation?
2. What are some of the activities of a school that afford training in coöperation?

FOUR. *To develop the ability to use the most effective and reliable methods in searching for truth as a basis for the discovery and solution of problems.*

In a democracy, new generations should be prepared to discover new truths and to revise their practices accordingly. The training proposed in this goal will furnish necessary preparation for the coöperative discovery and solution of the problems created by the complexity and interdependence of our social, political, and economic relationships. It will also increase the power of citizens to coöperate successfully in creating the best conditions of living for all.

1. Is it better to emphasize that the social world grows, changes, and improves, rather than to teach that "whatever is, is right" in the community or state?

2. Is it possible to have classroom activities that will enable children to discover truths for themselves?

FIVE. *To develop the effective use of the fundamental knowledge and skills required by all.*

This goal demands effective training in the arts of reading, writing, spelling, language, and arithmetic. Such arts are essential tools of common understanding and communication.

1. Why do some people believe it would be sufficient to make this goal the sole purpose of the elementary school?
2. How thorough a mastery of these fundamental skills should be required of all pupils?

SIX. *To insure an abundant social and individual life in accordance with each individual's capacity and ambition.*

This goal involves provision for proper and adequate training in problems of health, in desirable home membership, and in the worthy and constructive use of leisure time. It also calls for the general and specific vocational training required for economic sufficiency.

1. How much vocational training should be provided in the elementary school? in the junior high school? in the senior high school?
2. Is it likely to be too costly to provide health training for all?

SEVEN. *To provide training in the specialized and professional services which are requisite for society.*

Society must have the services of persons specially equipped in the preservation and further development of the knowledge, skills, and techniques vital to the advancement of society as a whole. This goal recognizes that the valuable and useful accumulation described as "the social inheritance" must be preserved and transmitted from generation to generation. Through research and experimentation this inheritance should be increased.

1. How valuable to American civilization are specialized services such as those of the physician, the engineer, the metallurgist, and the scientist?
2. How many persons should be trained for specialized services and how should these persons be selected for such training?

EIGHT. *To provide for the enrichment of adult life.*

This goal is receiving attention because our increased leisure demands provision for continued education for adults, and the changing social and economic conditions require the provision for retraining for both the vocational and the avocational aspects of life.

1. Is it proper to use public funds for this purpose?
2. How would emphasis on this goal tend to decrease crime and unhappiness?
3. Should society reëducate the workers thrown out of employment because of technological changes?

NINE. *To plan for the continuous appraisal and readjustment of the educational program to fit changing conditions.*

When scientific discoveries and inventions force us to set aside old ways of living, the schools should provide new activities which give definite practice in making adjustments to new situations in order that society may be modified through the process of orderly change rather than through revolution. This goal is important in a democracy because social and economic conditions change and education must also change accordingly in order to make its contribution at each stage of social progress.

1. Are you convinced that democratic educational training decreases the danger of costly revolutions or dictatorships?
2. Since your experience in school, has the school changed as much as the social and economic conditions have?

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# *Chapter Nine*

## The Influence of the Machine and Scientific Techniques on the Number and Types of Occupations

THE influence of the machine and technology on our present civilization has been tremendous. In no other area have the changes been so extensive as in the number and types of occupations. For example, the automobile is the basis of one of our major industries. This industry has created hundreds of new types of work which had never previously existed. One may wonder where the people attached to the automotive industry came from and to what types of work the blacksmiths and the proprietors of livery stables and harness shops migrated.

The problem of the changing character of jobs has been dramatized by the technocrats. They frighten us with appalling facts. Let us read a few observations from a recent book:

> Recently I went to Milwaukee to look at a machine. It filled a whole building, and its function was to engulf raw steel sheets at one end and turn out finished automobile frames at the other. The whole transformation took about an hour. Every eight seconds, day and night, a painted, dried, ready-to-ship frame went swinging into the great overhead storage chamber, 10,000 a day. This one machine, if operated steadily, could supply upward of 3,000,000 frames a year, a frame for every

motor car manufactured in the United States in 1930. When these frames were made by the old "hand" process, it took 2000 men to produce 10,000 frames a day. The machine has eliminated 90 per cent of the sometime operating force; one man now does what ten men used to do.

Prior to 1919 one man could make 75 electrical bulbs a day. An automatic machine introduced in 1920 raised production to 73,000 bulbs a day, thus causing the elimination of 994 men for each machine installed. Recent improvements in the machine have doubled output and have caused the displacement of 2000 men for each machine.

In building, one gigantic steam shovel now does the work performed by 200 unskilled laborers at the beginning of the century, while a big power shovel will dig and load up as much dirt as 400 men used to do.

The white-collar industries are similarly affected. Adding machines, interest-calculating machines which do the work of more than 10 bank clerks, automatic photograph machines, dictaphones and dictographs, are all throwing thousands of clerks out of jobs. There are coin-changing machines which change bills and coins of all varieties, and an infinite variety of other devices.[1]

A recently invented machine threatens to displace 5,000,000 cotton pickers in the South. By the use of tractors and night plowing farmers have been able to dispense with the service of many farm hands. In an article under the title, "Chemistry Wrecks the Farm,"

[1] H. W. Laidler, *Unemployment and Its Remedies.* New York: League for Industrial Democracy, 1931. Reprinted by special permission. The first paragraph was quoted by Dr. Laidler from an article by Stuart Chase in the *Journal of Adult Education,* January, 1931.

which appeared in *Harper's Magazine* for August, 1935, Parrish and Clark quoted a famous soil chemist as saying that if all the knowledge of soil chemistry which is now available were applied to the growing of foodstuffs, our present crops could be grown on 20 per cent of our present acreage. These various illustrations are sufficient to support the point that profound changes have been and are now being brought about in the occupational life of society.

The consequences of this fact are numerous. In the first place, the machine forces many laborers into unemployment until new types of work are created by new machines. In the second place, this technological unemployment affects the unskilled worker in far greater numbers than the skilled worker. The status of the common laborer, therefore, is exceedingly precarious in modern society. In the third place, the encroachment of the machine on the work of man has constituted a serious threat to the security of life. Unemployment has already been mentioned; but illness and old age become convenient excuses for dismissal when there is a large surplus of young labor created by the machine. Hence some form of insurance against old age, sickness, and unemployment looms as an inescapable social obligation.

In the fourth place, the machine has created a greater amount of leisure for those fortunate persons who do have work. The "worthy use of leisure time" becomes a major problem. Life immediately

becomes more than a grubbing for mere subsistence. The new leisure imposes a demand for recreational activity on an organism that has been disciplined since the dawn of civilized life for serious work.

### EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

All of these consequences are challenges to education. The facts themselves should be emphasized in the social studies. Education for the creative use of leisure time becomes a pivotal objective of the school. Special vocational training probably becomes decreasingly important. The training and future of children of subaverage intelligence, who later as common laborers are cast off by the machine, becomes an imperious burden of the educational system.

But the most serious problem produced by the factors we have been discussing is the problem of the guidance of youth. Industry is absorbing fewer young people than ever before. Schools dismiss them in their early or middle teens. They are left, therefore, in idleness during some of the best years of their life. If positions are available, it is difficult to prescribe guidance in terms of the traditional inventories of job requirements, for the specifications of occupations in modern times are changing so rapidly that it is very hazardous to base a career on any one or two types of work. We are confronted, therefore, with what some commentators have called a "lost generation" — too old for school and too young for the work of the world. The answer to this prob-

lem is being attempted by the government in the form of the CCC camps and in the recently organized National Youth Administration. What the future of these organizations will be, no one can now safely predict; but they are an acknowledgment of the magnitude and gravity of the problem and they probably presage the development of a new type of institution in society which will be designed to meet this situation. In any case it constitutes probably an acute challenge to our present educational system which, if properly met, may stimulate one of the most significant developments in the history of American education.

The seeds of tomorrow's social and economic patterns are now incubating in the attitudes and habits of our youth. Society dares not allow our youth to drift. Guidance is imperative.

ISSUES SUGGESTED FOR GROUP DISCUSSION

1. In your judgment what is the solution of the problem created by the constantly increasing tendency of modern industry to cut down labor costs and speed up production by introducing labor-saving machinery?
2. How much of the work which your school system is now undertaking will train the pupils to make more worthy use of their leisure time?
3. Select at least three standard occupations and indicate the manner in which they will probably be modified within the next generation.
4. Make three practical suggestions which the schools

might follow in aiding the child of subaverage intelligence to gain an occupational foothold in society.

5. Some writers have pointed out the fact that the upper ten per cent of society seems to be engaged in making civilization more complex, thus producing a situation in which the person of lower intelligence has greater difficulty in feeling at home. This viewpoint presents a dilemma fraught with fearful possibilities for the stability of society. Do you think that this viewpoint is justified? What can the schools do about it?
6. Make a brief report on the article "Half Slave, Half Free" listed in the references.
7. At a meeting of the Michigan Council on Education in April, 1935, a committee submitted a report relating to some of the difficulties faced by youth, especially those who are out of school and unemployed. Among the pronouncements of the committee were the following:

(1) The vocational outlook for youth is rapidly shifting and is practically unpredictable. We are reaching a period when industry needs only a portion of the available youth and probably will need them in decreasing numbers on account of improved technological and productive processes.

(2) Youth finds itself with an unprecedented amount of leisure and is not trained to use it intelligently. Youth has little money to spend on commercial recreation even if it were adequate. Youth has little preparation or opportunity for creative use of leisure in crafts, dramatics, hobbies, social recreation, and the arts.

(3) The schools, with their emphasis on formal education, are not yet geared to help youth to live well

in the world as it is. Most school curricula are planned largely for college, whereas only a small percentage of youth go to college.

(4) Attendance at school has not adequately equipped youth to keep abreast with the times, to understand current affairs and changing social and economic conditions, or to function adequately as a citizen.

(5) Youth are unprepared to continue their education informally. They do not know how to continue their education individually or in groups through use of libraries, correspondence courses, etc.

(6) The home life of many youths is frequently filled with tensions produced by the economic and social readjustments of the parents as well as by youth's own peculiar difficulties.

(7) The necessity for deferred marriage for many older young people is a serious problem leading in many cases to a sense of hopelessness regarding the possibility of marriage and as a result to immorality.

(8) Many youths have developed attitudes of supine dependency, blind resentment, or calm acceptance of relief at a time when there is special need for initiative and resourcefulness.

(9) Communities tend to have disintegrated and often competitive efforts to help youth, building on specific interests of youth rather than a coördinated program calculated to develop their total personality.

(*a*) Which of the preceding pronouncements are valid for youth in your area?

(*b*) Would you agree that the secondary school is in any way responsible for finding a solution to any of the problems described in the foregoing statement?

(*c*) Make a list of specific suggestions for aiding youth in meeting the situation implied in any one of the foregoing statements.

(*d*) Do you know of any local or state movements designed to aid youth in avoiding some of the problems or difficulties mentioned in the foregoing statements? (Optional)

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# Chapter Ten

## The Widening Gap between the Expert and the Masses

IT cannot be denied that social, economic, and educational problems are becoming increasingly complex and that we have a real need for the expert. But society has not learned how to use the expert. In general, the expert is not a candidate for public office, nor is he likely to be elected if he runs. A man may be well qualified for the highest office in his state and yet find it difficult to be selected by voters for a trivial local office. There are competent men with high ideals of public service who would not, under existing conditions, accept the governorship of a state. There are good school men in every state who would not accept the office of State Superintendent of Public Instruction even though the term of office and salary were doubled.

We cannot with safety continue our failure to use the expert. The voter in the New England town meeting could perhaps give an intelligent decision on the simple questions that were debated there. But with the rapid growth in knowledge and in the complexity of relationships, the typical citizen, as a voter, perhaps, or as a member of a legislature, is expected to make decisions on questions that he cannot possibly understand without the guidance of the expert.

As a result we have great confusion on public questions, often accompanied by fear. Any solution, however fallacious, that is expressed in vivid form may be accepted in gullible fashion by vast numbers of citizens. We elect men to office who are not technically trained, and the public has no means for a true appraisal of its public servants. As a result we have a growing distrust by the common man of the motives of the politician. At best he hopes that the man for whom he votes will limit his graft to a reasonable amount.

Though we do not use the expert in any sensible way for advisory purposes, his usefulness with respect to this function, at least, should be fairly obvious. In our present-day social problems are various factors, woven into intricate patterns with numerous interrelationships. Their causes and effects are difficult for the masses to understand, especially so in that records of social evidence are often unreliable and incomplete. We do not have a primer for the common man in sociology, in political science, or in economics. It would be enormously helpful if we had the expert continuously on the job, defining the public's problems, presenting the facts on public issues, and suggesting possible solutions for the various problems. It does not follow necessarily that the expert is the proper person to determine policies. On the contrary one may question whether a government report prepared by experts should ever contain recommendations or even conclusions drawn from

data. Social science and propaganda, for some pressure groups, are easily interchanged and confused when an investigator weaves recommendations into a statistical report. A good case can be made for limiting the function of the expert to fact finding, thus leaving the decisions regarding problems and procedures to other functionaries. If the decisions were left to other groups with broader training and understanding, we should have less criticism and fear of a so-called "brain trust."

The delay between an invention, or a discovery, and man's social use of it is called cultural lag. The discrepancies between proved theories and practices is very great in many fields. In the medical field there is a wide gap between available scientific knowledge for the alleviation of human suffering and the public's practical aptitudes to profit therefrom. There is a vast difference between the curricula and procedures employed in average schools and those used in the better schools. One can still find schools that use textbooks for the social studies published before the opening of this century! It took a World War to publicize the intelligence tests that long had been available in the laboratories of educational psychologists. We have departments of political science that seem to be expounding sensible theories of government, but our municipal government is still the disgrace that Lord Bryce found it to be more than a generation ago. In our cultural life, Caldwell and Lundeen have reported widespread persistence of

numerous superstitions. The gap between the expert and the masses exists in every field of achievement, with the possible exception of industry. Here we seem to make prompt use of the most modern radios, automobiles, and the like. But even this field may have a lag, for there are persistent rumors that revolutionizing inventions are withheld in order that certain areas of industry may not become disorganized.

### EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

The major problem of the schools and perhaps of the press is to bridge this gap between the expert and the masses. We need to humanize knowledge, to deverbalize the curriculum, and to present the simple principles of the major areas that affect citizenship — science, economics, education, political science, and sociology — in a simple, graphic form which the common man can understand. In brief, the basic principles of the school subjects must be written in primer form, employing simple verbal statements and vivid, graphic illustrations.

The rapid growth of knowledge has resulted in the continued lengthening of the period of schooling. Courses and curricula have multiplied in number and content. Teachers must know more subject matter and know it better, because they have to be able to draw materials from many fields and to point out the important relationships. But since the subject matter that any one individual can learn can be

only a small sample from the vast amount of material that the general reader may meet, mere control of subject matter does not suffice. An education for adjustment must place the emphasis on principles and processes.

A second important task of the school is to emphasize the true functions of the expert: the definition of problems, the mobilization and distribution of experience, the formulation of alternative solutions, the appraisal of experiments. These are functions of the expert which even the common man does not seriously question; but he does balk at accepting decisions of policy by the expert, and in this he is possibly correct. In brief, schools need to teach future citizens to use the expert in social organization and government in much the same way that he is being used in industrial research.

Finally, the schools must aid the pupils in establishing standards by which the expert can be selected. As regards physical health, society has given itself a fair amount of protection by allowing the medical profession to seize by legal processes the examining and certifying machinery of the state. But in most matters the common man is helpless when he selects expert guidance. In the field of mental health, for example, vast sums are paid annually to fake psychiatrists and racketeers in personality adjustment. School people have been negligent, even with respect to providing adequate standards for school boards that could operate in a sensible way toward the selec-

tion of good teachers. It is an unusually intelligent school board, indeed, that will use a simple check list of desirable qualifications when electing a teacher to fill a vacancy. To an ignorant school board, one teacher is as good as another, and the thing to do is to employ the cheapest.

The gap between the progressive school man, with fine technical training, and his public is particularly great. Again and again it happens that a man may achieve a national reputation as an alert and intelligent school administrator only to find himself without a position because he and his community have come to live in different universes. Other things being equal, the truly progressive school is in greater need of an intelligent program of public relations than is the school which, because of incompetence, is allowed to fall a full decade behind the needs of the times.

ISSUES SUGGESTED FOR GROUP DISCUSSION

1. *Time,* under date of August 5, 1935, reported a "miracle" by which Senator Glass, through the sheer power of his ability to persuade people, convinced a great majority of the Senate who were opposed to the Eccles Banking Bill. Can you give some other explanation for the Senator's success in winning support for the Eccles Banking Bill?
2. Are there any public officials in your community who need technical advice? If so, how do they get it?
3. Would it be safe for the social science department in your school to appraise the services of the public officials in your community?

4. To what extent have previous national administrations used technical experts?
5. One commonly hears the statement that success in life today requires a higher degree of education. Is there any evidence in your community to support this contention?
6. Consult Frank and summarize his position with respect to the proper use of the expert (pages 55-63).
7. Do you think that President Roosevelt knew how to select experts in building the so-called "brain trust"? Do you think he has used the experts in the right way? Support your answer by the most convincing evidence that you can find.

MINIMUM READING

*Modern Social and Educational Trends,* pages 243–287. *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association,* Vol. XII, No. 5; November, 1934.

OPTIONAL REFERENCES

FRANK, GLENN. *America's Hour of Decision.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1934. (263 pages.)

MORGAN, A. E. *Journal of Proceedings of the Association of Universities,* 1933, pages 121–124.

# *Chapter Eleven*

## The Growing Conviction of the Masses Regarding the Desirability of Education

"UNDEFINED and indefinite as it is, the word 'education' is just now a magic one; from the Atlantic to the Pacific, it is the most potent with which you can conjure money out of public chests or private pockets. Let social troubles declare themselves anywhere, lynchings, strikes, trusts, immigration, racial controversies, whatever you chance to hold most threatening, and we are gravely assured on every side that education is the only thing which can preserve our coming generations from destruction. What is more, as a people, we listen credulously to these assurances. We are told, and we believe and evince magnificent faith in our belief, that our national salvation must depend on education." So wrote Professor Barrett Wendell of Harvard University back in 1904 in an article for the *North American Review* under the title "The Great American Superstition." If Professor Wendell were writing this same article today, he could be much more emphatic in the statement of his point. For in 1935 not only is this faith in education held by the upper middle classes to whom the author addressed his words in 1904, but it is seeping down through the

consciousness of the masses of the people who never read articles written by college professors and who are more likely to think that the name "North American Review" refers to the name of some musical comedy than to a distinguished magazine for highbrows.

In an impressive manner the common man is becoming aware of the manifold changes which are taking place around him. On a few points he is probably more convinced than on others. He has observed the rise of new occupations and the extinction of others. He has witnessed the advent of striking technological equipment. But he has been confused and unable to understand it all. And this inability to understand has probably established a latent sense of the need for training.

Sometimes, however, a latent sense of need requires dramatic evidences to vivify its significance in the mind of the people. The World War and the recent depression have undoubtedly done much to emphasize the great value of education to the common man. The young man with an eighth-grade education was certainly impressed during the World War with the celerity of his college-graduate "buddy's" conversion into an officer. And, in spite of numerous exceptions, the average man has realized the validity of the striking data revealed by recent studies in Denver, showing an amazing degree of relationship between the stability of employment and the amount of education possessed by the individual.

In general the day when the man without special skill can secure a job from a free labor market is past. To quote the words of several tenth-grade youngsters recently interviewed, the common man realizes that "no one has a good chance these days unless he has at least a high school education. If you drop out of school too early, you may earn some pay, but you can get into a rut or blind alley too easily, and you can't get anywhere."

The average man with few financial resources has usually associated the limitations of his penury with his lack of education and he has linked the status of the more favored economic groups with the fact of superior educational advantage. The average man has customarily worked long hours at confining labor, and has enjoyed few of the bodily comforts of life. To him the man who wears good clothes, lives in a comfortable home, and possesses an economic surplus is a man whose speech is cultivated, who reads, and who has gone to school. The average man reasons to the effect that "if my son and daughter can get an education they will not have to go through the body-breaking drudgery which will shorten my life or make me a helpless dependent at middle age; nor will they have to suffer the sting of social inferiority from which I shall never escape." So the common man demands a free educational system and insists on the "best" for his children. In democratic America all must have the same opportunity, and this opportunity in the mind of the average man is the

public school, the ladder to social and economic advancement.

It would not be fair to the whole picture, however, to assert that the economic or purely utilitarian motive is the only basis of interest in education. There is a growing mass of evidence to indicate the presence of genuinely cultural and intrinsic interests in education of a cultural type. Mr. Charles H. Compton, assistant librarian of the St. Louis Public Library, gives evidence in the *American Mercury* for April, 1934, to indicate that the taste of the common man is much better than the impeccable literati are accustomed to admit. The American Library Association possesses ample data to indicate the rise of a higher order of reading interests during the depression, and those familiar with the Worker's Education Movement of England will acknowledge the striking evidence in that enterprise of the growth of a genuine interest in a cultural type of education among the masses of the population.

It cannot be argued that the average man is avidly itching for culture with a capital C. Nor is it supposed that all people would or should forgo a baseball game, eighteen holes of golf, a boxing match, and a movie for an hour with Goethe or a fifteen minutes with the Harvard Classics. But it should be emphasized that there is heartening evidence that if the material were available in an attractive form, a cultural interest in education could be stimulated among great numbers of so-called common people.

### EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

The implications of this argument are clear. In the first place, the average man is beginning to insist that his children be given a type of education which will fit them for the practical task of securing a livelihood and for the social life of the modern age. In the second place, as people grow older and realize the values of the cultural phases of education, they will demand a form of adult education which, with a minimum of effort and with an absence of academic trappings, will give them an appreciation of the abiding values that inhere in the traditional curriculum. The conviction of the whole population regarding the desirability of education is therefore having two outcomes: first, the insistence that education must prepare for life, and second, that education should communicate the great spiritual values which enable man to attain his slight superiority to the evanescent demands of life, a superiority which comes only to the emotionally mature individual who knows that life is more than bridge whist, bricks, beer, and beef roasts.

### ISSUES SUGGESTED FOR GROUP DISCUSSION

1. How could your community be more greatly interested in the so-called cultural aspects of education? In this discussion, cultural interests are interpreted broadly to mean practically the same as intrinsic interests as contrasted with extrinsic and strictly economic interests.

2. The table given below brings together in systematic fashion some of the most frequent current criticisms of the public schools. These criticisms are discussed

RECENT CRITICISMS OF THE SCHOOLS

| GENERAL TYPE OF CRITICISM OF THE SCHOOLS | NUMBER OF ARTICLES IN GENERAL MAGAZINES | | | CRITICISMS IN 12 PROFESSIONAL BOOKS [2] | RANK ORDER OF THE CRITICISMS OF 88 SPECIALISTS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 44 LAYMEN | 20 EDUCATORS | TOTAL 64 ARTICLES [1] | | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 1. "Soft" pedadogy; too many frills | 12 | 7 | 19 | 1 | 1 |
| 2. Lack of contact with life | 6 | 6 | 12 | 5 | 2 |
| 3. Overemphasis on vocational aims | 6 | 1 | 7 | 2 | .. |
| 4. Severe discipline; overwork of students | 6 | 1 | 7 | .. | 6 |
| 5. Neglect of character development | 6 | .. | 6 | .. | 3 |
| 6. Mass education methods | 4 | 1 | 5 | 1 | 5 |
| 7. Suppression of individuality | 3 | 2 | 5 | 2 | .. |
| 8. Neglect of gifted children | 3 | .. | 3 | .. | .. |
| 9. Control by faddists | 1 | 2 | 3 | 2 | .. |
| 10. Neglect of traditional subjects | 1 | 1 | 2 | .. | .. |
| 11. Neglect of civic and social efficiency | Included with item 2 | | | 6 | 7 |
| 12. Improper emphasis on high school athletics | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |

[1] The numbers in Columns 2, 3, and 4 indicate frequency of mention. Some articles are classified under more than one criticism.

[2] The figures in Column 5 indicate the number of the twelve books mentioning the particular criticism.

at length in an important booklet entitled *Evaluating the Public Schools* (National Education Association, Washington, 1934). They were obtained by scanning 44 articles written by laymen for magazines of national circulation, 20 articles prepared by educators for the same list of magazines, 12 recent professional books, and a list of criticisms of secondary education prepared by 88 specialists.

(*a*) Consult the bulletin *Evaluating the Public Schools* and summarize the criticisms of schools under the following headings: (1) Is the public school getting results? (2) Does the school give adequate attention to character development? (3) Do the schools give adequate attention to the needs of the individual child? (4) Do the schools give adequate preparation for life?

(*b*) Does your school system have facilities for introducing children into local occupations and community activities? To what extent does your community have a forward-looking program to develop libraries and playground and youth movements that tend to strengthen the work of the school?

(*c*) What are the current criticisms of the public schools of your community? What do the school people have to say on these points?

3. Consult Chapter II of *Education and the Adjustment of Youth to Life* (A Report of a Committee to the National Industrial Conference Board, Inc.) and summarize the discussion of criticisms and accomplishments of public education given there.

## MINIMUM READING

*Evaluating Public Education.* Washington: National Education Association, 1934.

## OPTIONAL REFERENCES

COMPTON, CHARLES H. "Who Reads Mark Twain?" *The American Mercury,* Vol. XXXI (April, 1934), pages 465–471.

COUNTS, GEORGE S. *The American Road to Culture.* New York: John Day Company, 1930.

*Public Education as Affecting the Adjustment of Youth to Life,* Chapters II and III. New York: National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1929. (xi + 61 pages.)

# *Chapter Twelve*

## The Discovery of the Public School by Numerous Pressure Groups as an Instrument for the Control of the Ideas of Children

In newspapers and in magazines, both professional and otherwise, one finds many acrimonious discussions of issues concerning propaganda, indoctrination, academic freedom, and so on. Our school people are also deeply concerned as to whether teachers shall be permitted to discuss controversial questions with their pupils. At first glance it might appear that these are issues of the first order, but it is probable that they are mere preliminary skirmishes of the real struggle ahead of us for the control of the ideas of children. Beale has written an illuminating article (see Optional References for this chapter) on the many insidious and selfish forces that are exploiting our schools. The list of groups that limit freedom in education is long and familiar to any alert citizen. For instance, there are military and patriotic societies, fraternal organizations, manufacturers' associations, corporate interests, and the yellow press. It is also pointed out that there are many forces with the finest of social motives that solicit the aid of the teacher but which "are dangerous to the schools because they will never admit the purity of their opponents' motives, because they depend upon

threats and force and are unwilling to allow questions to be settled by free speech and free debate, and because they look upon teachers as automata hired to impose upon the next generation the views of whatever group is powerful enough to control them." Among the numerous organizations listed are the Daughters of the American Revolution, the American Legion, and the United Daughters of the Confederacy. Beale points out the appalling increase of legislative regulation of schools by which politicians and pressure groups have secured the enactment of laws making mandatory the inculcation of certain qualities of character and conduct such as Americanism, benevolence, business integrity, chastity, cleanliness, common honesty, and courtesy. The list of traits, each one in itself perhaps highly desirable, is so long as to reduce the situation to absurdity. Many states have laws which make special exercises mandatory in observance of Arbor Day, Bird Day, Conservation Day, Temperance Day, Flower Day, National Education Week, etc. In the seventy years that preceded 1921, the state of California, by legislative action, shoved fifty-three subjects and topics into the curriculum of the elementary grades. The fact that twenty-two of these were subsequently dropped suggests the great importance of having ways and means by which experts may determine the educational merits of a subject before inclusion in the curriculum. The extent to which our high school curricula have been prescribed by legislative action is

CHARACTER AND EXTENT OF LEGISLATIVE CONTROL OF PUBLIC-SCHOOL AND COMMON-SCHOOL CURRICULA, 1930

| SUBJECT | NO. OF STATES | SUBJECT | NO. OF STATES |
|---|---|---|---|
| Nature of alcoholic drinks | 48 | Agriculture | 14 |
| Physiology and hygiene. | 39 | Drawing | 13 |
| History (United States). | 38 | Bible | 13 |
| Constitution (United States) | 38 | Prevention of communicable diseases | 12 |
| Reading | 36 | Composition | 12 |
| Arithmetic | 36 | Language | 11 |
| Geography | 35 | Music | 9 |
| Writing | 34 | Manual training | 7 |
| Spelling | 34 | Domestic science | 7 |
| Grammar | 32 | Thrift | 5 |
| Physical training | 29 | Safety | 4 |
| Citizenship | 26 | Hygiene and sanitation. | 4 |
| History (State) | 22 | Elementary science | 4 |
| Civil government | 22 | Algebra | 3 |
| Morals | 21 | Preservation of birds and game | 2 |
| Humane treatment of animals | 20 | Industrial work | 2 |
| Health | 17 | Spanish | 1 |
| | | Forestry | 1 |

shown in the table above, which is quoted from the National Survey of Secondary Education.[1] The objectives of such legislation are sometimes highly desirable, but tend to become so numerous as to prevent a sound program of education. The most serious objection, however, lies in the fact that these movements reflect the subtle influences of special lobbying groups rather than the judgment of experts in education. This is a procedure in curriculum construc-

[1] Ward W. Keesecker, *Legal and Regulatory Provisions Affecting Secondary Education*, National Survey of Secondary Education, Bulletin No. 17, Monograph No. 9, 1932, page 77.

tion which, if allowed to continue unabated, may easily come to destroy us.

Beale shows that there are many forces equally subversive that are operating within the schools. He suggests, as illustrative, conservative groups that are seeking to protect the vested interests of local and national groups, and groups of left-wing educators who are attempting to indoctrinate the children with their own subtle propaganda. To this he might have added an extensive list of semi-political groups which are trying to promote all sorts of programs for the amelioration of society, as, for example, the control of crime.

The far-reaching sweep of the pressure groups and their propaganda is revealed in the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science,* of which the whole issue for May, 1932, was devoted to the portrayal of backgrounds and methods of group pressure. Here again we see an endless array of groups, some with selfish purposes, some with excellent motives, and all with dangerous procedures as far as the school program is concerned.

### EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

The word "education" has in a general way come to be associated with the search for truth, with freedom of discussion, with respect for personality, and with the free choice of alternatives in the solution of a problem. We must find a way to protect the schools from control by forces without and within,

be they selfish or altruistic. Freedom in teaching is essential if we are to find the best solution for the problem of modern society. We must resist propaganda and all other procedures and techniques of pressure groups, selfish and unselfish alike.

Respect for pupil personality requires that a teacher will refrain from presenting a single solution to a pupil as a sort of fixed pattern that a pupil must accept. The democratic and American way of solving a social problem demands that the greatest number possible of our future citizens shall be taught to consider fairly the arguments for each of a number of alternative solutions. Hence there can be no question as to the teacher's right to deal with controversial issues, if the continued improvement of our fundamental institutions is to be assured. But to be able to "get away with this" the teacher must have a very broad scholarship, the ability to deal with delicate matters in an impersonal, objective, and fair-minded way; the disposition to keep an argument free from emotion; and the habit of keeping his own views out of the picture until some pupil says, "Where do you stand?" then taking a definite position, but admitting that we all have our biases and prejudices and that at best his own opinion is merely one of alternative solutions. The procedure to be employed was demonstrated in brilliant fashion in the February, 1936, meeting of the Department of Superintendence by Professor Roy Hatch. Professor Hatch taught a group of seniors selected from St.

Louis high schools a lesson relating to the New Deal and certain decisions of the Supreme Court, before an audience that probably set an all-time record in the number of observers. To the thousands of people who saw this demonstration, Professor Hatch showed in convincing fashion what a scholarly and tactful teacher can dare to do, and how it should be done. However, it is not clear that this demonstration struck at the fundamental issue. For practical purposes our parents can be classified into two groups — the stupid and the thoughtful. The stupid parent wants his children taught the same narrow views that he himself holds. The intelligent parent, recognizing the limitations in the scholarship of the typical teacher, has the "jitters" as he contemplates what is likely to happen to his children when this teacher, with deep emotionalized prejudices, proceeds, in the name of academic freedom, to inculcate these narrow patterns of thought. The fundamental problem presented to the schools by both types of parents is not so much the preservation of academic freedom; it is rather the proper selection and the thorough education of teachers.

The preceding discussion throws considerable light on the much-debated issue, "Shall the schools be used to construct a new social order?" This question seems more pertinent: Who knows what is to be the new social order? If we have faith in the ideals of American democracy, we will allow no one, not even the teachers in our schools, to force a final solution

or a fixed pattern upon the minds of our children. The votary of academic freedom too often emphasizes freedom to *teach* what he pleases and overlooks a far more important issue: freedom to *learn,* or the right to know the truth. Admitting that occasionally a teacher becomes an innocent victim of a powerful pressure group or of selfish persons with influence in a community, it is also true that the occasions when teachers get into difficulties will be sharply decreased when they learn to be broad-minded and tactful, and thus become capable of respecting the personality of the pupil. The teacher's real opportunity, namely, to develop the pupil's own capacity to think, will be greatly enhanced if he constantly guards against imposing his own viewpoint. We must have faith that the people will make wise choices when they have been taught how to gather all the available facts which are significant to an issue, and when they have discussed these facts adequately. To this end, a greater percentage of our people must be taught to think, and to think unselfishly from the social point of view. If this does not provide a way out, then there seems to be little hope for mankind to control his own destiny. The school faces two dangers: first, the adoption of a policy of drift and evasion which will allow it to be controlled by the dominating group in the community; and second, the surrender of its democratic ideal to the forces that spread propaganda for any fixed solution.

The issue of academic freedom appeared in the

Report of the Committee on Resolutions to the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association meeting in Denver, Colorado, on July 4, 1935, as follows:

The National Education Association believes that administrators, teachers, and schools should have full opportunity to present differing points of view on any and all controversial questions in order to aid students to adjust themselves to their environment and to changing social conditions. The National Education Association is instructed to appoint a Committee on Academic Freedom of five members, three of whom shall be classroom teachers. The duties of this committee shall be as follows:

(*a*) To make known to teachers and other friends of education any proposed legislation against freedom in teaching and to take the necessary steps to combat such legislation.

(*b*) To investigate and to report upon cases of discharge of teachers in violation of the principle of academic freedom and to take such steps as are necessary in the light of the findings of such investigation to maintain the principle of academic freedom.

(*c*) To seek public support for the right of teachers to academic freedom.

(*d*) To coöperate with other national organizations who are actively engaged in maintaining the principle of academic freedom.

While a more effective, a stronger, organization of teachers undoubtedly will help to preserve the principle of academic freedom, probably greater hope for the individual teacher lies in experimentation. The way to make significant and lasting changes in

the curriculum and in the methods employed in schools is through systematic experimentation. Intelligent and resourceful teachers can often secure needed permission (which otherwise might be denied) to institute radical innovations when they are undertaken as properly controlled experiments. Proposals for the reform of public education are frequently written by laymen in such brilliant style that a wholly fallacious educational nostrum may seem plausible to the unwary and the uninformed. Then, too, it is very easy for someone in education to launch a program or formula in typical skyrocket fashion, which leads the public to think that the problem is actually solved, when, as a matter of fact, years and years of painstaking work needs to be done, both in experimentation and in the more difficult problems of practical application, before any substantial change should be made in our schools.

Now it is difficult for the teacher, busy with a multitude of routine tasks, to winnow the grain from this mountain of chaff. The teacher's protection against the elusive snares of the educational propagandist on the one hand, and the excessively enthusiastic layman on the other, is careful experimentation, the systematic investigation of a delimited problem. Experimentation is a sound, conservative policy because it challenges the old and tests the new. It tends to make teachers intelligently conservative; for with the experimental, the scientific, point of view they are less likely to seize a thing that is new merely

because it is new. Far too often, projects labeled experiments do turn out to be mere futile innovations when undertaken by untrained and incompetent teachers. But a teacher who is carefully checking and studying the results of his teaching is more likely to be stimulating and efficient, for intelligent experimentation tends to wake up teachers and to keep them awake.

The student of education should not expect one and only one right answer to a problem. In an advertisement of a large automobile-manufacturing corporation, we find a statement that exemplifies this conclusion perfectly:

> In engineering, there is seldom just one way and only ONE way to accomplish a given result — nor is there just one BEST way. Generally speaking, I would say that there are about a dozen ways of designing any mechanical device. A dozen of them may be worth developing on the drawing board. A half dozen may be worth building experimentally — four or five may work out satisfactorily in practical usage. And of this four or five there are likely to be two or three designs where it is a tossup as to which is the best.

Problems in education are far more elusive and usually involve more factors than problems in engineering. It is unreasonable, therefore, to expect a specific formula for each situation. There are many acceptable ways of combining a given list of foods into a good meal, and there may be many ways of handling a specific educational situation. But it is important that the prospective teacher be familiar

with a few of the effective ways of dealing with the situation. We must not overlook the fact that there are many common objectionable practices in our schools which have never even advanced into the hypothetical area of debate, and these may be more easily identified by the teacher with the spirit of research and a fair control of its basic techniques. To select one of the several correct ways of doing a school task and to reject all of the indefensible ways is the persistent and perplexing problem of the teacher. Without the ability to make a systematic study of an educational problem he may be driven helplessly by the shifting winds of rationalism and lay empiricism.

It is not likely that the experimental method will be used extensively in the immediate future. The public now believes in agricultural experimentation and it reads with appreciation of how large corporations are investing in careful study of their processes; but in education the public permits sweeping changes without careful inventories of what it was getting out of the old.

Even industry does not apply scientific techniques to its educational problems. For example, some of the boys in a well-known trade school undoubtedly have genuine need for sound mathematical training. For years the industrial company that conducts the school has used a mimeographed outline of mathematics, presumably because the available textbooks did not meet the needs of the boys. But this manu-

script was obviously not produced by the exact systematic procedures that are employed in making the product of that company, for it is a fantastic mixture of genuine shop problems and obsolete problem material which teachers in good schools began to discard a generation ago. Apparently corporations do not turn out new models in their curriculums by scientific methods.

In education we do not have the habit of measuring before and after making changes, even though huge sums and the welfare of our children are at stake. One would like to think that the public in increasing numbers might come to recognize the value and conservatism of experimental work. The effects of the industrial depression, however, will leave only small funds available for experimentation in the immediate future.

But meanwhile some research can be prosecuted by competent classroom teachers. A teacher undertaking experimental work should be well prepared, experienced, and of a certain restless type of mind. At best a department in a secondary school should undertake only a few or, better still, only one well-defined problem at a time. Sound experimentation never implies that everything that a single teacher does is subjected to experimentation. The well-trained teacher possessing the scientific spirit realizes that at best a scientific study can be made of only a very small part of the curriculum at any one time if he is to relate his findings to the whole.

It is unfortunate that the terms "progressive" and "reactionary" have lost their usefulness as terms in education by the fact that some extremely conservative proposals have been sold to teachers and even to university administrators in the name of progressive education. In all probability one could today go to Denver (Colorado), Oakland (California), Houston (Texas), Flint (Michigan), and other cities with genuinely progressive schools and find numerous activities that will be used to illustrate the educational slogans ten years hence. The general public and most teachers will probably not know about these "educational reforms" until they are discovered by someone who has the desire and the ability to publicize them.

In considering experimental work it is extremely interesting to note that the significant changes are made by classroom teachers without the furor of publicity. Thus, for example, the Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, was established in the spotlight of intense publicity with two major purposes — first, as an illustration of a secondary school that would not teach Latin, and second, as a demonstration of the scientific technique of experimentation. But these purposes were not realized. As regards the teaching of Latin, the pupils enrolled in the school were precisely the ones that should have studied Latin, if any need to study it, and from the very first there was a considerable amount of bootlegging of Latin. As regards the

second purpose, concerned with the application of scientific procedures, this became impossible because of the excessive teaching load assigned to teachers and the endless stream of visitors that consumed their time.

Now, while the publicized purposes were never achieved, the first decade of the Lincoln School probably represents one of the best investments of money ever devoted to education. A large number of gifted classroom teachers undertook numerous innovations. They revamped and improved suggestions by others, and these have subsequently constituted some of the major changes of secondary education of recent years. Among these may be included the following: (1) flexible furniture for the classroom; (2) a classroom as an appropriate and attractive setting for the task undertaken; (3) the long school day, consisting of the long class period devoted largely to laboratory procedures; (4) the concept of a supplementary library with enriching materials in or near each classroom; (5) the concept that an academic subject in the junior high school does not need to be recited every day in the week; (6) the desirability of the correlation of the various school subjects; (7) the organization of general courses in the junior high school subjects to provide exploration within the subjects; (8) the genuine participation of pupils in the management of the school; and (9) the concept of discipline that admits no conflict between interest and effort and which defines freedom in a way that

leaves no place for discourtesy and disorder. These and numerous other contributions were unostentatiously shifted into the practice of schools by the vast number of visitors who saw these things demonstrated; for teachers have a way of talking to each other that blows away the chaff and leaves the grain. So it comes about that often an honest effort in experimentation proves fruitful, even though it may not be along the lines of the issues publicized. The individual teacher can often evade the limitations of a threatening pressure group and secure a large measure of academic freedom from excessively conservative administrators through careful experimentation and systematic investigation of a delimited problem.

ISSUES SUGGESTED FOR GROUP DISCUSSION

1. Cite a specific instance in which a community has invaded the rights implied in the academic freedom of the teacher.
2. Describe in some detail a situation in which a teacher has dealt successfully with a highly controversial issue.
3. Describe in detail a situation in which a teacher has got into difficulty in attempting to deal with a highly controversial issue. Try to analyze the real causes of the failure.
4. (*a*) Of the following words and phrases select those that you consider the legitimate province of education:

   efforts to affect adult behavior
   dealing with the instruction of childhood and youth

teaching things that are true
teaching things that are false
things which are taught in schools
things taught outside of school
teaching what we want to have taught
spreading beliefs which we regard as undesirable
rational
irrational
motivated by service to society as a whole
devoted to advancing the interests of a special group
teaching that which the teaching profession believes should be taught
teaching that which persons outside of the school machinery believe should be taught
transmitting the social inheritance

(*b*) Going through the list once more, select the phrases that you associate with the concept of propaganda.

5. Make a list of the pressure groups that are operating in your schools. Attempt to classify them into two groups: first, those having selfish purposes; second, those having altruistic or reform motives.
6. At the Atlantic City meetings of the Department of Secondary School Principals in February, 1935, Dean J. B. Edmonson of the University of Michigan made the following statements:

> In my opinion the senior high school enjoys less independence in the control of its program than any other unit. The curriculum has been largely determined by a considerable number of pressure groups such as the college entrance bloc, the state-subsidized bloc, the legislative bloc, the special interests bloc, and the standardization bloc. In the elementary school the principals and the teachers have a considerable voice in determin-

ing what should be taught in the interests of the children. In the junior high school the teachers and the administrators have come to have a major influence. In college the faculties are free to revise and to change the curriculum in terms of changing opinions relative to the educational needs of students. The grim determination with which college faculties will fight for freedom in instructional matters is in striking contrast to the action of these same college faculties in denying secondary school teachers a comparable degree of freedom in the matters of instruction on the secondary school level. If freedom is so necessary for the protection of the interests of college students, it would seem desirable that secondary school teachers enjoy comparable discretion in dealing with their pupils.

Do you agree or disagree with the viewpoint expressed in the foregoing quotation? It has been said: "Assuming that many changes are needed, we dare not ignore the fact that if the principals and faculties of senior high schools were entirely free to do what they wished to do, they would do about the same things as they now are doing." What factors would tend to make this statement true?

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